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MATTHEW PRIOR.

AMONG the treasures recently exhibited in the little Loan Museum at Twickenham were some of those large-paper—those very large-paper—*folio* volumes in which the collected works of Alexander Pope made their first imposing appearance. The *Poems* of Matthew Prior belong to the same race of bibliographical Anakim. With the small copy of 1718, Johnson might have knocked down Osborne the bookseller; with the same work in the tallest form (for there were three issues), Osborne the bookseller might have laid prostrate the "Great Lexicographer" himself. It is, assuredly, one of the largest volumes of verse in existence. Tried (as it lies before us) by the practical test which Macaulay applied to Nares's *Life of Burleigh*, it is found to measure about thirty-six inches by twelve; it weighs from nine to ten pounds avoirdupois; and in handling it one thinks involuntarily of the complicated contortions in which, some years since, Mr. George du Maurier depicted the unhappy student of a modern *édition de luxe*. As one turns the pages of the great tome, it is still with a sense of surprise and incongruity. The curious mythological head-pieces of muscular nymphs and dank-haired river gods, the mixed atmosphere of Dryden and "the Classics," the unfamiliar look of the lightest trifles in the largest type, the jumble of ode and epigram, of Martial and Spenser, of La Fontaine and the "weary King Ecclesiast,"—all tend to heighten the wonderment with which one contemplates those portentous *Poems on Several Occasions*. And then, if, by chance, the book should contain, as

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it sometimes does, the famous print by George Vertue after Belle, one calls to mind that the author was an envoy and ambassador once on familiar terms with the *Roi-Soleil* himself, and who, nevertheless, by this very volume, in that golden Georgian age, made some four thousand guineas out of the pockets of the most distinguished of his Georgian contemporaries. You may read their titles in the twenty double-column pages which follow the poet's dedicatory panegyric of "the Right Honorable Lionel, Earl of Dorset and Middlesex,"—surely a paragon of noblemen and patrons! There they are, all of them,—

> "Art, science, wit!
> Soldiers like Cæsar,
> Statesmen like Pitt!"—

poets like Pope and Swift (who took five copies), painters like Jervas and Kneller, bishops like Hoadley, maids-of-honor like "the Hon^ble^ M^rs.^ Mary Bellenden"—in fine, all the notabilities from Newton to Nash, and each (as must be assumed from the result above recorded) promptly paying his or her subscription for the monster miscellany published by "left-legged" Jacob Tonson, "at Shakespeares-Head over against Katherine Street in the Strand." In the prefatory sonnet to his *Nuits d'Hiver*, poor Henry Murger invoked an anticipatory blessing upon "*l'homme rare*," the prospective purchaser who ("*sans marchander d'un sou*") should pay a crown for a collection of verses. But what triple, what quadruple, what infinitely-multiplied benediction ought to encompass and accompany the buyer of a Brobdingnagian *folio* of poems, largely didactic and official, for the magnificent sum of two guineas!

If to these divisions of "didactic" and "official" be added a third, with the general title of "occasional or familiar verses," we have a rough-and-ready classification of Prior's legacy to posterity. With the first group we need not greatly occupy ourselves, and, except as far as concerns the writer's biography, we may practically neglect the second, always provided that we give its fitting commendation to the delightful burlesque of M. Boileau Despreaux's *Ode sur la Prise de Namur*. What is vital in Prior to-day is not what he fondly believed to be his masterpiece:—

> "Indeed, poor *Solomon* in rhyme
> Was much too grave to be sublime,"

he confesses, rather ruefully, in his last-published piece, "The Conversation." It is neither *Solomon* nor the *Carmen Seculare for the year*

1700 upon which Prior's claim to poetic honors is based, but, rather, those gay and airy *vers de société* which have charmed alike such diverse critics as Cowper and Thackeray. "Every man," says Cowper, defending his favorite against the "King-critic," Johnson, "—every man conversant with verse-writing knows, and knows by painful experience, that the familiar style is, of all styles, the most difficult to succeed in. To make verse speak the language of prose without being prosaic, to marshal the words of it in such an order as they might naturally take in falling from the lips of an extemporary speaker, yet without meanness, harmoniously, elegantly, and without seeming to displace a syllable for the sake of the rhyme, is one of the most arduous tasks a poet can undertake. He that could accomplish this task was Prior; many have imitated his excellence in this particular, but the best copies have fallen far short of the original." "Prior's," says Thackeray, again, also putting in his respectful protest against "the great Samuel," "seem to me amongst the easiest, the richest, the most charmingly-humorous of English lyrical poems. Horace is always in his mind, and his song, and his philosophy, his good sense, his happy, easy turns and melody, his loves, and his epicureanism, bear a great resemblance to that most delightful and accomplished master." If Prior is to be judged by his peers, we may take the sentence of Cowper and Thackeray as one against which there is no appeal. Both were lovers of Horace; both were humorists; both, when they chose, themselves excelled in that familiar style of which the art is only hidden. Perhaps, if there be anything in the theory which makes kindliness one of the essential characteristics of the humorist as opposed to the wit, both Thackeray and Cowper belonged more distinctly to the former class than Prior; but, in any case, both possessed that sympathetic insight into Prior's work without which there can be no real intelligence.

Matthew Prior was of humbler extraction than either Pope or Gay. He was born (as is now generally agreed) near Wimborne Minster, in East Dorset, on the 21st July, 1664, his father being described as a joiner. From the presence in the St. John's College register of the epithet "*generosus*," it has been surmised that the elder Prior may have held some land, but the general laxity of the record does not justify much theorizing. Of his son's life in his native town there is but one anecdote. In the library over the sacristy in the old church of St. Cuthberga is a chained copy of Raleigh's great *History of the World*, of 1614, in which a hole is said

to have been burned by Master Matthew, when dozing over that work by the light of a smuggled taper. That between the magnificent opening and the eloquent close of those thirteen hundred pages there are many nodding-places, may be conceded; but, unfortunately, there are also incredulous spirits who insist that this particular defacement is the work, not of a candle, but of a red-hot poker. A less debatable detail of Prior's boyhood is that his father died early, and that he passed to the care of his uncle, a vintner, and the host of that "Rummer" Tavern at Charing Cross, which is figured in Hogarth's plate of "Night." Samuel Prior sent his nephew to the neighboring school of Westminster, then under the redoubtable Busby, where he had for schoolmate another Dorset lad, the Thomas Dibben who afterwards translated the *Carmen Seculare* into Latin. Leaving Westminster, his uncle seems to have considered his education complete, and, if tradition is to be believed, installed him as a drawer at the "Rummer." This, which is strenuously denied by the early biographers, one may be permitted to doubt. Prior's own rhymed reference to his duties—

> ("Taught me with *Cyder* to replenish
> My Vats, or ebbing Tide of *Rhenish*")—

seems to refer to that superior stage of the vintner's art, which consists more in sophisticating the source than in controlling the supplies. But the "Rummer" was in good repute with the nobility who then swarmed in Westminster, and it was, moreover, one of their recognized meeting-places. On one occasion, when the Earl of Dorset was present, a dispute arose as to a passage in Horace, and some one, more instructed than the rest, proposed to refer the point to "a young fellow in the house" (a special pleader might observe that the phrase is "the house," and not "the bar") for settlement. Prior was accordingly sent for, and acquitted himself to the satisfaction of the company, making, moreover, it seems, a life-long friend of Dorset, who helped to send him to St. John's College, Cambridge. In 1686 he was admitted to his bachelor's degree, and, two years later, he appears as the composer of the annual poetical tribute, which the College presented to one of its benefactors, the Earl of Exeter. Those conversant with Prior's maturer muse will, perhaps, be surprised to hear that this was a rhymed exercise upon a verse of Exodus, in which some of the writer's critics discern the promise of his future *Solomon*. It is more material to note that, as the following extract

proves, he was already an accomplished disciple of Horace and of such English Horatians as Dryden and Cowley :

"Why does the constant Sun
With measur'd Steps his radiant Journeys run ?
Why does He order the Diurnal Hours
To leave Earth's other Part, and rise in Ours ?
Why does He wake the correspondent Moon,
And fill her willing Lamp with liquid Light,
Commanding Her with delegated Pow'rs
To beautifie the World, and bless the Night ?
Why does each animated Star
Love the just Limits of its proper Sphere ?
Why does each consenting Sign
With prudent Harmony combine
In Turns to move, and subsequent appear,
To gird the Globe, and regulate the Year ?"

This, one would imagine, with its careful and perspicuous art, must have been far above the usual average of the votive verses which went annually to "Burleigh-house by Stamford-town." But the "college exercise" had been preceded by an effort more calculated to exhibit Prior's peculiar gifts. In 1687 Dryden had published *The Hind and the Panther*, and among the numerous replies which it called forth was a thin quarto, entitled *The Hind and the Panther Transvers'd to the Story of the Country Mouse and the City Mouse.* It is not one of those productions which, in these days, offer great attractions to the reader, although, when it appeared, it was, in all probability, full packed with topical allusion. Ostensibly, Prior seems to have shared the honors of authorship with his fellow-collegian, Charles Montagu (afterwards Earl of Halifax), but it is most likely, as is inferred in more than one anecdote, that the work was mainly his; and there are certainly some touches in it which might be supposed to have been especially dictated by his recollections of the "Rummer."

"*Drawers* must be trusted, through whose hands convey'd,
You take the *Liquor*, or you spoil the *Trade.*
For sure those *Honest Fellows* have no knack
Of putting off *Stum'd Claret** for *Pontack.*
How long, alas ! would the poor Vintner last,
If all that drink must *judge*, and every *Guest*
Be allowed to have an understanding *Tast?*"

According to Dean Lockier, as reported by Spence, Dryden was

* Stum'd = strengthened (Halliwell).

greatly pained by this parody. "I have heard him say:—'For two young fellows that I have always been so civil to, to use an old man in so cruel a manner!'—And he wept as he said it." This last is one of those details which are the despair of the biographer. It must be admitted that the evidence is fairly good, but the story is entirely opposed to all we know of Dryden, and no one can be blamed who follows Johnson in declining to believe it.

In April, 1688, Prior obtained a fellowship, and in the next year we find him staying with Lord Exeter, to whose family, from certain poems in his works, his "college exercise" had apparently served as an introduction. At all events, it is from Burleigh that, in May, 1689, he addresses to a friend and court poetaster, Mr. (afterwards Sir) Fleetwood Shepherd, one of those ambling letters in verse, of which, with Butler for his more immediate model, he had already discovered the secret. In this particular communication, there is no sign that he is suffering from Hamlet's "lack of advancement," but in another and briefer rhymed epistle, written, in the same year, to the same person, it is plain that he has embarked upon that tedious course of place-hunting, which formed so material part of the pleasures of literature in the eighteenth century.

"While crowding Folks, with strange ill Faces,
Were making Legs, and begging Places,
And some with *Patents*, some with *Merit*,
Tir'd out my good Lord *Dorset's* spirit:
Sneaking, I stood, among the Crew,
Desiring much to speak with You.
I waited while the Clock struck *Thrice*,
And *Footman* brought out fifty Lies,
Till, *Patience* vext, and *Legs* grown weary,
I thought it was in vain to tarry:
But did Opine it might be better
By *Penny-Post* to send a *Letter*;
Now, if you miss of this *Epistle*,
I'm baulk'd again, and may go whistle."

From what succeeds, it would seem that Shepherd, who is said to have lived with Dorset as his friend and companion, had hitherto acted as Prior's advocate with his patron. Indeed, in the succeeding lines, he is personally credited with the blame of diverting his petitioner from the humbler calling of a vintner or an attorney.

"All this, You made me quit, to follow
That sneaking Whey-fac'd God *Apollo*;

Sent me among a Fiddling Crew
Of Folks, I 'ad never seen or knew,
Calliope, and God knows who.
To add no more Invectives to it,
You spoil'd the Youth to make a Poet."

At the close comes in a reference which must be held to account for the absence of the verses from the collections published in Prior's life-time. Either in consequence of his share in the *Town and Country Mouse*, or (as is far more likely) because he was older, possessed superior interest, and had made an aristocratic marriage, Charles Montagu had already entered upon what was to prove a distinguished path in life.

"There's One thing more I had almost slipt,
But that may do as well in *Post-script;*
My Friend *Charles Montague's* preferr'd;
Nor would I have it long observ'd
That *One Mouse* Eats, while *T'Other's* Starv'd."

More fortunate than Gay, whose life was frittered away in vain hopes of court favor, Prior was not kept waiting long for a reply to his petition. Shortly after the above epistle, and (it is only reasonable to suppose) in consequence of it, he was appointed, through Lord Dorset, secretary to the English Embassy which, in 1690, joined the Congress of the Allies at the Hague.

With this, which, even in that paradise of patronage, must have been an exceptional promotion for an untried man of six-and-twenty, unblessed with advantages of birth, and having no distinction but a college fellowship, begins Prior's official career—a career which lasted the greater part of his lifetime. In Holland he must have remained several years. In the interim, he had been made gentleman of the bedchamber to the king, and, besides contributing to Dryden's *Miscellanies*, he seems to have exhibited a judicious assiduity in the "strict meditation" of that diplomatic Muse, which (whatever else it might be) was certainly not thankless. In 1693 he prepared for the music of Purcell, and the delectation of Their Majesties, a New Year's "Hymn to the Sun;" and, in 1695, he was conspicuous among the group of mourning bards who, in black-framed folio, shed their melodious tears for "Dread MARIA'S *Universal* Fall"—otherwise Queen Mary's death. Later in the same year, he sent to Tonson, from the Hague, one of his most admirable efforts in this way—his answer to Boileau's *Ode sur la Prise de Namur* in 1692, in which,

taking advantage of the town's re-capture, three years later, by the English, he turns verse after verse of the French critic's pompous and parasitic song against himself. "A secretary at thirty," he tells Tonson, "is hardly allowed the privilege of burlesque," and the "English Ballad on the Taking of Namur," rare in its first form (for it was afterwards considerably altered), has no author's name. But neither this daring departure from metrical court-dress, nor the more fervent strain with which Prior greeted King William, after the failure of the assassination plot of 1696, retains the vitality of a brief poem belonging to the same year, where the epicurean "*Heer Secretar'is*" describes his periodical progress—

> "In a little Dutch chaise on a Saturday night,
> On my left hand my Horace, a Nymph on my right"—

to the extra-mural retreat in which, for the time, he escaped from Dutch tea-parties, state papers, and the "long-winded cant of a dull refugee."

In 1697 he was again acting as secretary to the negotiators at the Treaty of Ryswick, for bringing over the Articles of Peace in connection with which, "to their Excellencies the Lord Justices," he received a *douceur* of two-hundred guineas; and, in the following year, after being nominated Secretary of State in Ireland, he was made secretary to the splendid embassy to France of the Earls of Portland and Jersey. It must have been at this period that he delivered himself of that audacious utterance which is never omitted from any account of him. Looking, in the galleries of Versailles, at the famous battle-pieces of Lebrun, with their vainglorious inscriptions, he was asked if King William's palace had any corresponding decorations. "The monuments of my master's actions," he replied, "are to be seen everywhere but in his own house." If this excellent retort was ever repeated to Louis the Magnificent, it must be assumed that he was connoisseur enough to admire its neatness, as Prior seems to have always been an acceptable personage at the Court of France. This is amply evidenced from existing letters both of Louis and Anne. And it may be added that the favor of three monarchs, for William was also exceedingly well disposed to him, should conclusively negative the assertions of Pope and the historian Coxe as to Prior's diplomatic shortcomings. That he disliked his calling is conceivable, but there can be no ground for concluding that he was inefficient. Swift, in his *History of the Four*

Last Years of the Queen, specially refers to his business aptitude, and Bolingbroke testifies to his acquaintance with matters of trade. These are witnesses who are entitled to a hearing, even against Pope and the "copious archdeacon" who wrote the life of Marlborough.

But to trace Prior's political fortunes in detail would be far beyond the scope of this paper. He continued at Paris some time after the arrival of the Earl of Manchester (who succeeded Lord Jersey), and then, having had a "very particular audience" with his royal master at Loo, in Holland, was made an Under-Secretary of State. This was in 1699, in the winter of which year he produced another lengthy official ode, the *Carmen Seculare for the Year 1700*, an elaborate laudation of the exploits and achievements of his hero, "the Nassovian." Honors accumulated upon him rapidly at this date. The University of Cambridge conferred upon him the degree of M.A., and he succeeded John Locke, invalided, as a Commissioner of Trade and Plantations. In 1701 he entered Parliament as member for East Grinstead. Under Anne, he joined the Tories, a step which, while it brought him into close relations with Harley, Bolingbroke, and Swift, had the effect of ranging him on the opposite side in politics to Addison, Garth, Steele, and some others of his literary contemporaries. In 1711 he was employed in the preliminaries of the Peace of Utrecht, and, in the following year, went to Paris as ambassador. Then came the Queen's death, and the triumph of the Whigs. When, after a brief period of doubtful apprehensions, he returned to England, in March, 1715, he was impeached and imprisoned for two years. During his confinement he wrote one of the longest of his poems *Alma; or, The Progress of the Mind.* In 1717 he was excepted from the Act of Grace, although he was, nevertheless, shortly afterwards discharged. His varied employments had left him no richer than they found him, and his means were limited to his St. John's fellowship, which, with unusual foresight, he had retained through all his vicissitudes. To increase his means, his friends, Arbuthnot, Gay, and others, but especially Lord Harley and Lord Bathurst, devised the plan of printing his poems in the sumptuous *folio* already described. From one of his letters, it seems to have been delivered to the subscribers early in 1719, and, as we have said, brought him 4,000 guineas. To this, Edward Harley added another 4,000 for the purchase of Down-Hall,* in Essex (not

* Down-Hall, which only recently escaped being burned, is now the country-seat of Sir H. J. Selwin Ibbetson, M. P.

far from the Hatfield Broad Oak of a later poet's *London Lyrics*), which was to revert to himself at Prior's death. There is a pretty ballad among Prior's posthumous works, but apparently wrongly dated 1715, which relates ("to the tune of King John and the Abbot of Canterbury") how he paid his first visit to his new abode, in company with Harley's agent, Mr. John Morley of Halstead, and it shows that cares of state had in no wise abated his metrical freedom or his keen sense of humor. In their progress they arrive at the Bull at Hoddesdon, in Hertfordshire, where, between insinuating Mr. Morley and the hostess, ensues the following colloquy of memories:

"Come here, my sweet Landlady, pray how d'ye do?
Where is *Cicily* so cleanly, and *Prudence*, and *Sue?*
And where is the Widow that dwelt here below?
And the *Hostler* that sung about eight years ago?

"And where is your *Sister*, so mild and so dear?
Whose Voice to her Maids like a Trumpet was clear.
By my Troth! she replies, you grow *Younger*, I think:
And pray, sir, what Wine does the Gentleman drink?

"Why now let me die, Sir, or live upon Trust,
If I know to which Question to answer you first:
Why Things, since I saw you, most strangely have vary'd,
The *Hostler* is Hang'd, and the *Widow* is marry'd.

"And *Prue* left a child for the Parish to nurse;
And *Cicily* went off with a Gentleman's Purse;
And as to my Sister, so mild and so dear,
She has lain in the Churchyard full many a year.

"Well, Peace to her Ashes! what signifies Grief?
She roasted red Veal and she powder'd lean Beef*:
Full nicely she knew to cook up a fine Dish,
For tough were her Pullets, and tender her Fish."

In the old engraving by the once-popular Gerard Vandergucht, prefixed to the earlier editions of the poem (of which the foregoing by no means exhausts the lively humor), you may see "Matthew" and "Squire Morley" lumbering along in their carved Georgian chariot, while Prior's Swedish servant, Oeman or Newman, paces slowly at the side, on his master's horse, Ralpho. Having purchased Down-Hall, Prior continued to reside in Essex, for the most part, during the remainder of his life, diverting himself, much after Pope's fashion, with elaborate projects (on paper) for improving the prop-

* Powder'd beef = salted beef

erty, and, in practice, building a summer-house or two, cutting new walks in the wood, or composing "a fish-pond that will hold ten carps." Meanwhile, his health gradually declined, and, like Swift, he was troubled with deafness, a complaint which he whimsically said he had neglected while his head was in danger. He died, finally, of a lingering fever, at the Earl of Oxford's seat of Wimpole, in Cambridgeshire, where he was a frequent visitor, on the 18th September, 1721, being then in his fifty-eighth year; a circumstance which did not prevent an admirer from writing that—

> "*Horace* and *He* were call'd in haste
> From this vile Earth to Heaven;
> The cruel Year not fully pass'd,
> *Ætatis*, Fifty-seven."

A monument, for which "last piece of *Human Vanity*" five-hundred pounds were set apart in his will, was afterwards erected to him in Westminster Abbey. On it was placed a bust by Antoine Coriveaux, which had been presented to him by Louis XIV., and, at his own desire, the inscription was intrusted to that interminable epitaph-maker, Dr. Robert Freind, of whose lengthy achievements in this line Pope said, sarcastically, that one half would never be read and the other half would never be believed. In this instance, Freind's record must have been more authoritative than usual, since it seems to have supplied no small portion of their material to Prior's first biographers. Among other legacies, chiefly to friends (for only one relative is mentioned in the will), he left two-hundred pounds' worth of books "to the College of St. John the Evangelist, at Cambridge." These, which were to be kept in the library with some earlier gifts, included the *Poems* of 1718, "in the greatest paper." He also left to the College Lord Jersey's portrait by Hyacinthe Rigaud, together with the already-mentioned picture of himself by Belle, in his ambassador's robes.

Although, at last, it fell to another hand to write Prior's epitaph, he had more than once, after the semi-morbid, semi-cynical fashion of his time, amused himself by attempting it. One of his essays:

> "To me 'twas giv'n to die: to Thee 'tis given
> To live: Alas! one Moment sets us ev'n.
> Mark! how impartial is the will of Heaven!"

It is certainly superior to the lapidary efforts of either Pope or Gay. Another, said to have been "spoken extempore," was pro-

bably the outcome of some moment when he felt more keenly than usual the disparity between his position and his antecedents, as, for example, when that haughtiest of men, Lord Strafford, declined to act in the Utrecht Treaty with a person of so mean an extraction.

"Nobles and Heralds, by your Leave,
Here lies what once was Matthew Prior;
The son of Adam and of Eve,
Can Bourbon or Nassau claim higher?"

Among his posthumous verses, there is also a poem headed "For my own Monument," which, as he says he was fifty at the time of writing it, was probably his last experiment in this branch of literature. After referring to the fact that his bust by Coriveaux is not only provided, but paid for, and leaving the spectator to judge of its merit as a work of art, he bids him distrust what may be said in praise of the original. Then he goes on—

"Yet, counting as far as to FIFTY his years,
His virtues and vices were as other men's are;
High hopes he conceiv'd, and he smother'd great fears,
In life party-coloured, half pleasure, half care.

"Nor to business a drudge, nor to faction a slave,
He strove to make int'rest and freedom agree;
In public employments industrious and grave,
And, alone with his friends, Lord, how merry was he!"

The second of these stanzas, it may be safely assumed, pretty accurately describes Prior's not very elevated character. As we have already hinted, he had adopted his vocation, not because he was especially fitted for it, but because the ways were open; and if he prosecuted it with industry and gravity, it was also, in all probability, without conviction or enthusiasm. He was *not* (as Goldsmith said of Burke) "too fond of the right to pursue the expedient," and though, personally, he may have approved the Partition Treaty as little as the Treaty of Utrecht, he was, doubtless, philosophically satisfied, if he was able to extract an intelligible action from indefinite instructions. This saved him from the irritation and disappointment to which the vague and tortuous diplomacy of the time would have subjected a keener and more earnest spirit. As it was, while declining to be "a drudge to business," he seems to have succeeded in retaining the respect of his employers, and, if equally unwilling to play the part of "faction's slave," he escaped much of

the opprobrium incurred by others of his contemporaries, when, under Anne, he passed from one side to the other. Of his private life, such records as we possess (and they are not abundant) exhibit him as witty and accessible, much addicted to punning, and an advanced convert to Swift's more cheerful creed of "*Vive la bagatelle.*" We get glimpses of him in the *Journal to Stella*—a spare, frail, solemn-faced man (*visage de bois* is Bolingbroke's term), who had usually a cough, which he called a cold, and who walked in the park to make himself fat, as Swift did for the opposite reason of making himself thin. Sometimes they dine at "Harley's" or "Masham's," sometimes sup with Peterborough or General Webb (of Wynendael), sometimes sit together at the Smyrna Coffee-house, in Pall Mall, "receiving acquaintance." Occasionally Prior entertains at his own house in Westminster, where the guests will be Atterbury and Arbuthnot, or a Lord Treasurer and a Secretary of State. "If, at the old hour of midnight, after your drudgery," he writes to Bolingbroke, "a cold blade-bone of mutton in Duke Street will go down *sicut olim*, it, with all that belongs to the master of the house, . . . is at your service." At Westminster, too, met, now and then, that famous brotherhood of sixteen established by Bolingbroke for "the improvement of friendship and the encouragement of letters."

> "Our Weekly Friends To-morrow meet
> At MATTHEW'S Palace, in *Duke-Street;*
> To try for once, if They can Dine
> On Bacon-Ham and Mutton-chine,"

says one of Prior's invitations to Lord Oxford, and it goes on to add that "DORSET us'd to bless the Roof." If eighteenth-century gossip is to be trusted (and it was no more trustworthy than modern society scandal), the host was sometimes afflicted, after these elevated festivities, with a "*besoin de s'encanailler*," and would stroll off to smoke a pipe and drink a bottle of ale with two humbler friends in Long Acre, a soldier and his wife. But who knows? The author of "Down-Hall" was a student of character. Perhaps the soldier was a humorist. Perhaps he had carried a halbert under "my uncle Toby!" In any case, this, of itself, scarcely justifies Johnson in saying that Prior, "in his private relaxation, revived the tavern," by which he means the "Rummer." Unfortunately, there is ground for supposing that Prior's Nannettes and "nut-brown maids" were by no means such visionary personages as the Glyceras and Lalages

of his Roman exemplar; on the contrary, they were highly materialized human beings. When there is no Queensberry available,

"Tis from a handmaid we must take a Helen,"

says Pope, in his epistle to Martha Blount. We have the authority of Arbuthnot and others for believing that Prior's easy morality accepted the substitute without troubling itself about the transformation. Certainly, he seems scarcely to have shown the fortunate discrimination of Xanthias the Phocian. But it is needless to enlarge upon the chapter of his frailties. It is pleasanter to think of him as the kindly, companionable man, whom two generations of Dorsets and Oxfords delighted to honor, and whom the Duchess of Portland, the "noble, lovely, little Peggy" of one of his most charming minor pieces, described "as making himself beloved by every living thing in the house—master, child, and servant, human creature or animal."

Like Pope, Prior must have "lisped in numbers." "I remember," he says, in some manuscript notes which once belonged to the above-mentioned Duchess, and were first printed by Malone, "nothing further in life than that I made verses," and he adds that he had rhymed on Guy of Warwick and killed Colborn, the giant, before he was big enough for Westminster. But "two accidents in youth" effectively prevented him from being "quite possessed with the Muse." In the first place, at his Cambridge college prose was much more in favor than rhyme, and, in the second, he went promptly to the Hague, where "he had enough to do in studying French and Dutch, and altering his Terentian and original style into that of articles and conventions." All this rendered poetry less the business than the amusement of his life; and, as for satire, that was too hazardous a diversion for a circumspect placeman, who might, by a turn of the wheel, be suddenly at the mercy of a new Ministry. Hence, in his quality of plenipotentiary and ambassador, Prior seems to have studiously deprecated the serious profession of poetry. In his witty heroics to Boileau, after Blenheim, he writes:

"I ne'er was Master of the tuneful Trade:
Or the small Genius which my Youth could boast
In Prose and Business lies extinct and lost;"

and in the prose preface to his pseudo-Spenserian Ode to Queen Anne, after Ramilies, he says that it is long since he has (or at least ought to have) quitted Parnassus. Three years later, in the preface to

his first collection of 1709, he again characterizes his essays in verse as "Publick Panegyrics, Amorous Odes, Serious Reflexions, or Idle Tales, the Product of his leisure Hours, who had commonly Business enough upon his Hands, and was only a Poet by Accident." Whatever affectation there may have been in all this, the facts show that, dating from his first successful excursus upon Exodus, more than twenty years elapsed before he ventured to collect, from Dryden's *Miscellanies* and elsewhere, the scattered material of his earlier volume. It is notable, also, that the largest levy is from the fifth *Miscellany* volume, of 1704, when he was least occupied as a diplomatist, and it seems, besides, that his ingathering would have been smaller and more eclectic, had not many of his pieces been reprinted very incorrectly, in 1707, without his knowledge, and, after the laudable practice of the time, in company with several supplementary contributions which were not his at all. Publication was, therefore, forced upon him, and he was obliged (as he says) to put forth "an indifferent collection of Poems, for fear of being thought the author of a worse." In the closing words of his dedication to Lord Dorset, he refers to some attempts "of a very different nature (the Product of [his] severer Studies)," which he destines for a future book. One of these must obviously have been the long-incubated *Solomon*, which, with the subsequently-written *Alma* and a number of epigrams and minor pieces, makes up the chief additions to the *folio* of 1718. "Down-Hall" and "The Conversation," which belong to a later date, are, naturally, absent from the tall volume, but, in default of satisfactory explanation, it is certainly a curious instance of paternal blindness, that three of the poems by which the author is best known to posterity, "The Secretary," "The Female Phaeton," and the incomparable "Child of Quality," are not to be found in its pages. Nor do those pages include the dialogue of "Daphne and Apollo," which Pope told Spence pleased him as much as anything he had read of Prior's. These omissions are the more remarkable because Prior is known to have "kept everything by him, even to all his school exercises."

With Prior's longest and most ambitious poem, the common consent of modern criticism has made it needless to linger. That he himself should have preferred *Solomon on the Vanity of the World* to his other works, need surprise no one who remembers that Cervantes put his plays above *Don Quixote*, or that Hogarth rated the *Rake's Progress* below his unspeakable historical paintings. "What, do you

tell me of my *Alma?*" said its author, petulantly, to Pope (whose opinion he had asked on *Solomon*), "—a loose and hasty scribble, to relieve the tedious hours of my imprisonment, while in the messenger's hand." But the couplet already quoted from "The Conversation" shows that, by 1720, he had recognized that others were in accord with Pope. There is a letter in Pope's *Correspondence* which shows that Prior sent him "The Conversation," perhaps—may we not suppose?—with the vague hope that Pope might soften or reverse his verdict. But Pope's reply abides in generalities, and gives no sign that he had altered his judgment—a judgment which the majority of subsequent critics have unhesitatingly confirmed. If judges like John Wesley and Cowper thought highly of *Solomon*, it must be concluded that what they admired was rather the wise king's wisdom than Prior's rendering of it. Johnson himself admits that it is wearisome, and Johnson, whose "lax talking" and perverse criticism have done Prior so much wrong, must, upon this point of wearisomeness, be admitted to speak with some authority. The presence of one quotable couplet—

> "Abra was ready ere I called her name;
> And, though I called another, Abra came"—

can no more secure its immortality than

> "Fine by degrees and beautifully less"

(which Pope copied into his

> "Fine by defect and beautifully weak")

can revivify the hopelessly-dried specimen into which Prior flattened out the fine old ballad of "The Nut-Brown Maid." In the more leisurely age of country book-clubs, it is conceivable that even *Solomon* and *Henry and Emma* may have gone pleasantly to the gentle bubbling of Mrs. Unwin's tea-urn, or even to the rumble of John Wesley's coach wheels on a dusty posting-road; but to-day, when the hurrying reader must ask rigorously of everything, Is this personal to the author? Is it what he, and he alone, can give me? such efforts as Prior's master-piece (in his own opinion), and his useless paraphrase of simpler and sincerer work, fall irretrievably into the limbo of mistaken *tours de force*.*

* Cowper justly praises the execution of *Solomon*, and, as no recent writer seems to

With the "loose and hasty scribble" of *Alma*, the case is different. Here (to use his own words) "the man we talk with is Mat: Prior," and he talks in his own inimitable way. The piece or fragment,—a *soi-disant* dialogue upon the locality of the soul, carried on between the author and his friend, Dick Shelton,—has no discoverable plan; and its ultimate morality is very much the "Begone, dull Care," and "Pass the Rosy Wine" of that more modern philosopher, Mr. Richard Swiveller. But it is not to be read for its argument, or for that meaning which Goldsmith failed to grasp, but for its delightfully-wayward digressions, its humor and its good-humor, its profusion of epigram and happy illustration. Butler, though Cowper doubted it, is plainly Prior's model, the difference being in the men and not in the metre. Indeed, the fact is sufficiently evident from the reference to Butler in the opening lines of Canto ii.:

> "Yet He, consummate Master, knew
> When to recede, and where pursue:
> His noble Negligencies teach,
> What Others' Toils despair to reach.
> He, perfect Dancer, climbs the Rope,
> And balances your Fear and Hope:
> If, after some distinguish'd leap,
> He drops his Pole, and seems to slip,
> Straight gath'ring all his active Strength,
> He rises higher half his Length.
> With Wonder You approve his Sleight
> And owe your Pleasure to your Fright.

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have dared to give a serious quotation from the poem, the following may serve as a specimen:—

> "To the late Revel and protracted Feast,
> Wild Dreams succeeded and disorder'd Rest;
> And, as at Dawn of Morn fair Reason's Light
> Broke through the Fumes and Phantoms of the Night,
> What had been said, I ask'd my Soul, what done;
> How flow'd our Mirth, and whence the Source begun?
> Perhaps the Jest that charmed the sprightly Crowd,
> And made the Jovial Table laugh so loud,
> To some false Notion ow'd its poor Pretence,
> To an ambiguous Word's perverted Sense,
> To a wild Sonnet, or a wanton Air,
> Offence and Torture to the sober Ear.
> Perhaps, alas! the pleasing Stream was brought
> From this Man's Error, from another's Fault;
> From Topics which Good-nature would forget,
> And Prudence mention with the last Regret."

From all of which it may be concluded that after-dinner talk, "in halls of Lebanonian cedar," differed but little from after-dinner talk, *temp.* Anne and Victoria.

> But, like poor ANDREW, I advance,
> False *Mimic* of my Master's Dance:
> Around the Cord awhile I sprawl;
> And thence, tho' low, in earnest fall."

Prior here, naturally (and not unbecomingly, since his object is to eulogize the author of *Hudibras*), underrates his own powers. He may, as Johnson says, "want the bullion of his master," but, in the foregoing passage, he is praising his art, and in the art of Hudibrastic or octosyllabic verse he himself is second to none. As it chances, the excellence of his achievement in this way is almost scientifically demonstrable. Among Pope's works is usually included an imitation of Horace Bk. i., Ep. vii., the first half of which is Swift's, the rest being by Pope. Criticism has not failed to make the comparison which such a combination inevitably suggests. Swift was copying Butler, Pope was copying Swift. But each gives the measure something of his personal quality:—Swift makes it easier, more direct, more idiomatic; Pope, more pointed, more sparkling, more elegant. If any one will take the trouble to study the Swift-*cum*-Pope collaboration, and then read a page of Prior at his best, he will, we think, speedily arrive at the conclusion that, in craftsmanship at all events, Prior combines the more distinctive characteristics of both. He is as easy as Swift and as polished as Pope.

With this mastery over a measure so especially fitted for humorous narrative, it is scarcely surprising that he turned his attention to the "tale," which, in the England under Anne, passed as the equivalent of the admirable "*Contes*" of La Fontaine. His skill in simile and illustration, his faculty of profusely embroidering a borrowed theme, his freedom and perspicuity, and (notwithstanding his own disclaimer) his unfailing instinct "when to recede and where pursue,"—all qualified him excellently for the task. Whether he succeeded in actually rivalling his model, is debatable (Pope thought that, in his *Fables*, Vanbrugh went farther), but there is no doubt that Prior's essays in this direction were among his most popular performances. "Prior tells a story in verse the most agreeable that ever I knew," writes Lord Raby to Stepney, in 1705, and he only spoke the general sentiment of his contemporaries. Unhappily, the subjects of the three principal tales he wrote make it impossible to recommend what, in their way, are master-pieces of witty and familiar narrative. Even in the days when Hannah More read *Tom Jones*, it was not without expostulation that Goldsmith included "The Ladle"

and "Hans Carvel" in the *Beauties of English Poetry*, and though Johnson, in a paradoxical moment of opposition to the censure of Lord Hailes, contended that there was nothing objectionable in "Paulo Purganti," it would be a bold editor who, nowadays, should include it in a popular collection. The loss, however, is a serious one, for which neither the essays of Gay nor Somerville, nor even of Goldsmith, can wholly compensate us, and certainly not those of the once-celebrated Mr. Charles Denis of the *St. James's Magazine*, concerning whose absolutely-forgotten versions admiring contemporaries affirmed that they were

> "not mere translation,
> But La Fontaine by transmigration."

There are, it is true, one or two other poems of Prior's which are designated "tales." But one of the best of these, "The Conversation" is rather a *genre* piece than a story, and the claim of most of the rest to their rank is not strong. On the other hand, we may take advantage of the tale-like title of another piece, "An English Padlock" to cite its closing lines—lines which prove with what unalloyed good sense Prior could counsel an English Arnolph in tribulation over an English Agnes:

> "Dear angry Friend, what must be done?
> Is there no Way?—There is but One.
> Send her abroad; and let her see,
> That all this mingled Mass, which She,
> Being forbidden, longs to know,
> Is a dull Farce, an empty Show,
> Powder, and Pocket-Glass, and Beau;
> A Staple of Romance and Lies,
> False Tears, and real Perjuries:
> Where Sighs and Looks are bought and sold,
> And Love is made but to be told: . . .
> Let her behold the Frantick Scene,
> The Women wretched, false the Men;
> And when, these certain Ills to shun,
> She would to Thy Embraces run;
> Receive her with extended Arms:
> Seem more delighted with her Charms:
> Wait on her to the Park and Play:
> Put on good Humour; make Her gay:
> Be to her Virtues very kind:
> Be to her Faults a little blind:
> Let all her Ways be unconfin'd:
> And clap your PADLOCK—on her Mind."

It is not, however, by *Alma*, or his tales and episodes, but by his

lighter pieces, that Prior escapes the Libitina of letters. His bright and compact expression make him one of the best of English epigrammatists. Could anything, for example, be neater than this?—

"Yes, every Poet is a Fool:
By Demonstration NED can show it:
Happy, could NED'S inverted Rule
Prove every Fool to be a Poet."

The same may be said of the imitation of Martial, "To John I ow'd great Obligation," and "I sent for Radcliffe," which is too well known to need repetition. It is a pity that so many of his specimens in this way turn wholly upon the decay of beauty and the tragedies of the toilet. But among them there is one little version from Plato, which Landor might have been pleased to sign:

"VENUS, take my Votive Glass:
Since I am not what I was;
What from this Day I shall be,
VENUS, let Me never see." *

This variation of an antique model naturally leads one to speak of Prior's classical or, rather, mythological verses. In these he is most genuine where he is most modern, or, in other words, revives rather the manner than the matter of Greece and Rome. His "Cloe Hunting," "Love Disarmed," "Cupid Mistaken," belong to the wax-flowers of verse. But where, depending mainly or wholly upon his personal impressions, he only allows his classical memories to refine his style, his efforts are altogether charming. What, for instance, could be easier, gayer, more natural than these two stanzas of "A Case Stated," one of his posthumously-printed pieces:

'While I pleaded with passion how much I deserv'd,
For the pains and the torments of more than a year;
She look'd in an Almanack, whence she observ'd,
That it wanted a fortnight to BARTLEMY FAIR.

"My Cowley and Waller how vainly I quote,
While my negligent judge only Hears with her Eye!
In a long flaxen wig and embroider'd new coat,
Her spark saying nothing talks better than I."

* Voltaire, borrowing something from an epigram of Julian the Egyptian, has extended this idea:—

"*Je le donne à Venus, puisqu'elle est toujours belle;*
Il redouble trop mes ennuis.
Je ne saurais me voir, dans ce miroir fidèle
Ni telle que j'étais, ni telle que je suis."

"*Puisqu'elle est toujours belle*" happily heightens the pathos of the offering.

Purists might object that "deserv'd" and "observ'd" are not rhymes. But in this, as in the couplet in *Alma*,—

> "And what shall of thy Woods remain
> Except the Box that threw the Main?"—

Prior would probably have quoted the precedent of the French. The same qualities of elegance and facility which distinguish the above verses, are to be found in several other pieces too well known to be copied here. Such, for example, are the lines beginning "Dear Cloe, how blubber'd is that pretty Face," from which Tom Moore learnt so much, "A Lover's Anger," "A Simile," "The Secretary," and half a dozen others—not omitting "The Female Phaeton," which, at the risk of being superfluous, we shall transcribe. In the *folio* leaf, where it first appeared, in 1718, an additional detail is supplied by the statement that it was written "Upon Lady Katharine H[y]de's first appearing at the Play House in Drury Lane."

THE FEMALE PHAETON.

Thus *Kitty*, Beautiful and Young,
And wild as Colt untam'd;
Bespoke the FAIR from whence she sprung,
With little Rage inflam'd.

Inflam'd with Rage at sad Restraint,
Which wise *Mamma* ordain'd;
And sorely vext to play the Saint,
Whilst Wit and Beauty reign'd.

"Shall I thumb Holy-books, confin'd
With *Abigails* forsaken?
Kitty's for other Things design'd,
Or I am much mistaken.

"Must Lady *Jenny* frisk about,
And Visit with her Cousins?
At Balls must *She* make all the Rout,
And bring home Hearts by Dozens?

"What has she *better*, pray, than I?
What *hidden Charms* to boast,
That all mankind for her shou'd Die,
Whilst I am scarce a Toast?

"Dearest *Mamma*, for once let me,
Unchain'd, my Fortune try;
I'll have my *Earl*, as well as she,
Or know the Reason why.

"I'll soon with *Jenny's* Pride quit score,
Make all her Lovers fall;
They'll grieve I was not loos'd before,
She, I was loos'd at all."

Fondness prevail'd, *Mamma* gave way;
Kitty, at Heart's Desire,
Obtain'd the Chariot for a Day,
And *set the World on Fire.*

Among the other efforts of Prior's muse may be mentioned "The Garland," "The Question, to Lisetta," "Her Right Name," the verses to Montagu, those beginning "Spare, Gen'rous Victor, spare the Slave," and "The Merchant, to secure his Treasure;" to which last Mr. Palgrave has given the currency of the *Golden Treasury*. Nor should be omitted the Horatian verses in Robe's *Geography*, or those for Mezeray's *History*, sacred forever by their connection with Walter Scott. Not long before the end, Lockhart tells us, when on a border tour, two broken soldiers met him, and, recognizing the Laird, bade "God bless him." Scott looked after them, and, "planting his stick firmly on the sod," repeated Prior's verses "without break or hesitation." They turn on the clinging love of life, and Lockhart saw plainly that the speaker applied them to himself. This is the last stanza:

"The Man in graver Tragic known
(Tho' his best Part long since was done)
Still on the Stage desires to Tarry;
And he who play'd the Harlequin,
After the Jest still loads the Scene,
Unwilling to retire, tho' Weary."

But the crown of Prior's achievements is certainly the poem "To a Child of Quality," to which Mr. Swinburne gives the praise of being "the most adorable of nursery idyls that ever was or will be in our language." We shall not do the reader the wrong of quoting it, but will close our list with another less-known and posthumously-printed address to a little girl, who was the daughter of the poet's friend Edward Harley, and afterwards became Duchess of Portland:

"My noble, lovely, little PEGGY,
Let this my FIRST-EPISTLE, beg ye,
At dawn of morn, and close of even,
To lift your heart and hands to heaven:
In double beauty say your pray'r,
Our Father first, then *Notre Père:*

And, dearest Child, along the day,
In ev'ry thing you do and say,
Obey and please my Lord and Lady,
So God shall love, and Angels aid Ye.
If to these Precepts You attend,
No Second-Letter need I send,
And so I rest Your constant Friend.

M. P.

O si sic omnia! If he had oftener written as he has written of these two "children of quality,"—if he had sometimes written of women as reverently,—how large would have been his portion in our anthologies! As it is, he has left behind him some dozen pieces which have never yet been equalled for grace, ease, good-humor, and spontaneity, and which are sure of immortality so long as there is any saving virtue "in fame's great antiseptic, Style."

AUSTIN DOBSON.

THE INTELLECTUAL LIFE OF AMERICA.

No one familiar with Boston can read the opening chapters of Mr. Cabot's admirable memoir of Emerson without being struck by the contrast in the outward aspect, but still more in the social conditions, of the little town, seventy-five or eighty years ago, with those which the city presents to-day. The air then had something of morning freshness and sweetness, compared with its present noonday heat and dust. The community was more homogeneous, and its members were better acquainted. The habits of life were simpler; the interests of men were less mixed and varied; there were more common sympathies, more common and controlling traditions and associations. The harsher features of early New England life had become softened, without apparent loss of strength; the blessings of the novel American experiment in democratic institutions were widely diffused, and generally acknowledged, while the perils and evils accompanying them were, as yet, little felt, and hardly recognized. It was a cheerful time,—a time of exhilarating hope, of large promise, of legitimate confidence. Seldom has there been a society in which the moral atmosphere was clearer or more wholesome. The prevailing spirit took form in Emerson himself; his genius lay open to its influence; it shaped his thought, it defined his convictions, it gave birth to, and nourished, his faith in the constant excellence of man and nature, his confidence in moral order and in the prevalence of good throughout the universe.

The contrast between the Boston of the first and the Boston of the last quarter of the century is a type of the contrast between the America of that day and of this. Never, I believe, in any region, or in any period of history, has growth been more rapid, material progress more speedy and uninterrupted, physical resources more steadily and superbly developed; and never, in a similar term of years, have greater and more significant changes been wrought, not merely in the external conditions, but in the very temper, character, and composition of a people, as well.

We, of this generation, are swept along with irresistible force by this swift current of change. Old landmarks disappear as new

headlands come in view. The seas we sail have never been crossed. Our lives are full of the interest of adventure and experiment. Everywhere throughout the civilized world there is a sense that society is undergoing a transformation, the precise character of which it is impossible to foresee, but which, in its evolution, is already presenting fresh and difficult problems for solution. In America, where the field is more open and clearer than in the old world, some of these problems have already defined themselves with great distinctness. One of the most interesting and important of them is the question, whether the highest results attained by the civilization of the past, and hitherto confined to a select and comparatively small body, can be preserved, diffused, and made the foundation of a social order in which all advantages shall be more equally shared; or whether the establishment of more democratic forms of society will involve a loss which such gains in human conditions as may result from the new system cannot make good, however much they may outweigh it in their sum. The indications at present are doubtful, and admit of widely differing interpretations.

I propose to consider briefly one branch of the subject: namely, the effect of our material prosperity, our democratic institutions, and other national conditions, upon the character and development of the intellectual life of America. But even this topic is so wide, and has so many relations, that any general statement in regard to it is likely to be open to exceptions, and to require limitations. These must be taken for granted. "I do not, my dear sir," says Burke to the correspondent to whom he addressed his *Reflections on the Revolution in France*,—"I do not conceive you to be of that sophistical, captious spirit, or of that uncandid dulness, as to require, for every general observation or sentiment, an explicit detail of the correctives and exceptions which reason will presume to be included in all the general propositions which come from reasonable men."

Such a spectacle as America affords to-day, was never before witnessed. Sixty millions of people at peace, and free from fear—from *fear*, which, in some ghastly form or other, through all past time, has weighed upon the hearts of the great mass of mankind; sixty millions of people secure in the possession of the largest civil liberty; at least fifty millions of them enjoying, without anxiety, the possession of the fruits of labor and industry, sufficient to afford them an abundant livelihood, to free them from solicitude in regard to want in their old age, to inspire them with self-confidence and the spirit

of independence; fifty millions, at least, whose circumstances tend to make them well-meaning, orderly, good-humored, kindly, humane, and hopeful, tend also to quicken their practical intelligence, and to supply the minds of most of them with interests sufficient to keep their minds alive; in brief, fifty millions well housed, well fed, well protected in their rights; in general, sufficiently instructed in the elements of learning to have possession of the means of self-improvement; obedient to law, and, in the main, satisfied with the institutions under which they live. It is, indeed, a magnificent spectacle.

The general diffusion of these immeasurable blessings has been so easy, so tranquil, so natural an evolution of society, that the entirely unexampled nature of the fact has hardly received the recognition due to its significance in the historic development of the race. The masses of mankind are here, for the first time, enjoying life. No such unburdened existence has ever, anywhere, been their lot; while, at the same time, the class that is specially favored by fortune is, in large measure, relieved from the burden of the sense that, in other lands, weighs heavily upon the best of its members, of an unjust, and yet largely irremediable, inequality in the distribution of the opportunities and comforts of life.

In the last two-hundred-and-fifty years the American has done an enormous work. The continent has been subdued to the uses of man, and the energies of each generation have inevitably been mainly directed to this work, and, in combination with it, to the establishment and maintenance of institutions fitted to the nove circumstances. The success in both respects has been such tha it is not surprising that the spirit of the people has become confident and exultant. Nor is it to be wondered at that, as, with each successive generation, the mass of the population, increasing rapidlyin numbers, have partaken more and more in an unexampled wll-being, their thoughts and efforts have been turned more and more exclusively toward material objects and practical ends.

Toward such objects and ends, indeed, the thoughts and efrts of men throughout the civilized world have been specially directed, during the present century, by the achievements of science in ringing the forces of nature under the control of man. Steam an electricity, harnessed to machinery, have multiplied enormously ts productive powers. They have indefinitely increased the stck of wealth. They have practically diminished the size of the earh, by a vast increase in the speed and ease of locomotion, commuication,

and exchange, and in so doing have brought about an immense and far-reaching change in the habits and relations of men. The excitements of this conquest of nature, and the lures held out by the prospect of its indefinite extension, the new opportunities afforded to multitudes to better their condition, the larger rewards offered to industry, the comparative facility in acquiring wealth, the elevation in the standard of physical comfort,—these and other similar influences are controlling, beyond all previous experience, the intelligence and the imagination of civilized man. Fame, rank, honor, learning, and all other objects of ideal interest, have, comparatively, lost strength as motives of effort, as shapers of character and conduct. Wealth has become the chief modern form of power, and, usurping the dominion of the old ideals over the imagination, it is sought, not only as a means to other ends, but as itself an end. And it has a great advantage over other objects of desire, in its capacity of securing general and immediate recognition, and in its power to inflame the dullest intelligence by its direct appeal to the sensibilities of men.

Intelligence, virtue, and happiness are so closely related to physical well-being, that the evidence of material progress is sometimes taken as a sign of spiritual advance. But the claims of material pursuits, under a rule of unrestricted competition, are exclusive and absorbing. Every man has but a certain quantity of mental energy, and what is expended upon one object cannot be employed again upon another. It is not like the water that has turned the mill-wheel, which may be used afresh for the irrigation of the field, but, rather, like the coal that has been burned to raise the steam by which the engine is driven. It is exhausted in the process. The mind that is employed in the eager competitions and intricate problems of affairs, has little energy left for the prosecution of higher pursuits. The talents spent in acquiring wealth cannot also be spent in acquiring learning.

"The chief object of the Americans," said Horace Walpole, more than a hundred years ago, "is to make money." "In a youthful people," wrote Mr. George P. Marsh, more than fifty years ago, "encamped, like ours, upon a soil as yet but half-wrested from the dominion of unsubdued nature, the necessities of its position demand and reward the unremitted exercise of moral energy and physical force, and forbid the wide diffusion of high and refined intelligence." If such intelligence has not yet become widely dif-

fused, the defect can no longer be laid to our youth. But America has, as yet, made no contribution to the intellectual stores of the world corresponding to her immense contribution to its material supplies. She has made very considerable additions to knowledge, chiefly in those departments of science which are most closely allied to practical affairs; and during the last half-century she has added, beyond all other nations, to the inventions by which the comfort of man is enhanced, his labor saved and rendered more productive, and his wealth augmented; but it would be rash to assert that she has contributed much to the thoughts by which his life is ennobled, to the criticism by which its aims are defined and improved, or to that science, at once the product and the source of philosophy, by which the order of the universe and his relations to it are ascertained. Were the product of pure thought in America to be subtracted from the sum of the world's wisdom, it may be questioned if the diminution would be felt as a serious loss. The American whose writings have most considerably affected the inner lives of men is Emerson. He was, in truth, "the friend of the spirit." He gave utterance to the aspirations of New England; he emancipated its soul from the bondage of traditional formulas, and inspired it with generous emotion. His spiritual insight and his clear perception of universal truth gave simplicity to his doctrine of man and nature, while his temperament, his disposition, and the influences that had shaped him, coincided in leading him to accept certain pleading, but limited and transient, aspects of life in America as if they were of lasting validity and general application. This very fact tended to increase the influence of his words with his contemporaries reënforced as the words were by the personal charm of a character unique in its consistent elevation and purity; but the same fact lessens the power of his doctrine over a later generation, and already, as the years pass, some of what were once among the sweetest and most penetrating tones of his inspiring voice, begin to sound remote and faint in the distance.

Our literary activity and productiveness have, indeed been enormous during the last century, but we may, perhaps, number upon the fingers of one hand the writers whose books are likely to retain such vitality, a hundred years hence, as to possess more than a merely historic interest for our grandchildren.

In the other arts of expression—those arts by which other races have embodied in priceless works their deepest sentiment and their

keenest emotions, in forms of beauty of which the secret seems lost—the record is even scantier. In the length and breadth of the United States, what have we to show in which the spirit of a great nation is revealed through the beauty and dignity of the works of its creative imagination?

These and other facts of like nature, being the legitimate and inevitable results of the conditions that have shaped our national life, and given direction to our national energies, might excite little regret and less solicitude, were the influences which have hitherto prevailed to exalt material over mental interests in America either diminishing in strength, or counteracted by the growth of powerful opposing forces. But who can watch the main currents of our national life, without seeing that they are running with continually accelerating speed, and fuller volume, in the channels which they have hitherto hollowed out, and in the direction which they have hitherto pursued? If material development and prosperity were all that is required for the making of a great nation, if intellectual progress and moral improvement kept pace, by a law of nature, with the diffusion of material well-being, we might be altogether satisfied with the present aspect of our civilization. We are, it is true, quite ready to acknowledge the danger attendant on material prosperity, of content with low standards of moral and intellectual character, and we take satisfaction in our endeavor to guard ourselves against it by the general provisions for so-called popular education.

But in this matter are we not deluding ourselves? Our system of popular education provides only the elements of culture, and these are, for the most part, employed, not for the acquisition of culture itself, not for purposes of intellectual discipline, but for purposes of livelihood, and as means of success in practical affairs. The instruction given in our common schools is, doubtless, enough to supply the essential means of self-improvement, and sufficient for the mere business of life. More than this ought hardly to be expected from it. The development and discipline of the moral nature and the intellectual faculties are beyond its reach. A vast majority of the scholars leave school with practically empty minds, possessed of more or less information, but with little material of thought, with little training of the faculties of observation and judgment, and with little sense of their social responsibilities as members of the community. Their culture may have been carried far enough to produce a certain superficial activity of intelligence, which may

sometimes develop into rational intellectual curiosity, opening the way to self-improvement. But it generally stops short of the point where it would suffice to supply them with intellectual resources and motives for moral effort.

The evidences of this fact are abundant and conclusive. One of the most striking is that afforded in every region of the United States by the nature of the local press. The innumerable newspapers reflect the interests of the community, and no one acquainted with their general character is likely to question the assertion that they rarely give indication of concern for the things of the intellect. The material supplied by these papers to the readers upon whose support they depend for existence, readers who, for the most part, have passed through the common schools, is mainly the merest trifles of local intelligence, largely drawn from "the stagnant goose-pond of village gossip," supplemented with stories and selections which belong, as a rule, to one or the other class of the sentimental, the sensational, or the humorous. Any one who examines these papers with a view to ascertain the contents of the minds of the people, and to learn concerning their intellectual interests, is forced to the conclusion that they exhibit little evidence of mental activity, of intellectual seriousness, of popular interest in ideas of any sort, or of the existence of refined taste and advancing civilization in the community.

This conclusion is confirmed by the character of many of the most widely circulated journals of our great cities,—journals which serve as models and examples for those of smaller places. They are largely addressed to a horde of readers who seek in them not only the news of the day, but the gratification of a vicious taste for strong sensations; who enjoy the coarse stimulants of personalities and scandal, and have no appetite for any sort of proper intellectual nourishment. The testimony of many leading journals concerning each other is to the point. It would prove, if completely true, that their conductors are persons not fit to live in civilized society. Yet it must be assumed that these papers meet the supposed demands of their readers. And the mass of these readers are graduates of the public schools. It is hardly needful to adduce other illustrations of the fact that our system of popular instruction is not to be relied upon as a sufficient provision for the development of the intellectual life of the nation in proportion to its material progress, and for that moral culture without which its material prosperity is little better than an abundant crop of apples of the Dead Sea.

But there is still another general feature of our national life which, resulting, in large measure, from this prosperity, combines with it to interfere with the freedom and energy of thought, and with the moral elevation of the community,—namely, the similarity of condition and uniformity of custom prevailing among us. This general assimilation is not less exceptional, as an historical fact, than the material well-being of the community. Nothing like it has ever been witnessed on such a scale. The geographical character of our territory, the nature of our population and of our institutions, and the application of the inventions of science to the service of man, are among its causes. The absence of class-distinctions, the organization and discipline of political parties, the common-school system, with its largely mechanical methods of instruction, all contribute to it. The agency of the railroad, the steamboat, and the telegraph, in bringing about similarity of standards in habit and thought over wide regions, is of enormous force, and is a new element in civilization. But the main source of uniformity is to be found in the predominance of one race and of a single language over the whole area of the country, while the configuration of the continent—the absence of dividing barriers of mountain or sea, and the existence of great natural channels and highways of communication, like chains binding distant regions together—prevents the growth of strongly marked distinctions of national type. Even the enormous admixture with the native population, during the last fifty years, of immigrants from all the races of Europe, has had comparatively little effect upon the national uniformity, partly because of the general assimilating forces always at work, partly because of the natural disposition of the immigrant to accommodate himself to the humane, democratic standards of thought and conduct already established here, and partly because the immigrants have mostly come from the lower and least intelligent classes, destitute of ideas and of the power of initiative action.

The combined effect of these conditions has been to make the American people, taken as a whole,—without regard to comparatively small communities, in city and country, of almost exclusively foreign birth, and without regard to the black population of our Southern States,—less varied, both in physical and mental characteristics, than any other with which it may be compared. There is more difference between the inhabitants of the different parts of Great Britain, or between those of northern and southern France, Germany, or Italy, than between the people of Maine and Texas, of

Massachusetts and California. No one will question the reality of the advantages which result from the reduction of the natural obstacles that time and place offer to the mutual intercourse of widely separated peoples. They are by no means merely economical and material, but, as Mr. Huxley has recently pointed out in a striking passage, they weaken the power of local ignorance and prejudice, they create common interests, they strengthen the forces of the organized commonwealth against those of political and social anarchy. But, unquestionable as these advantages are, they are not unaccompanied by serious drawbacks. The prevailing conditions tend to diminish that variety of experience and of thought, that difference in tradition and conviction, that collision of ideas of varied origin, which are requisite to progress in high civilization. The advance of truth is largely dependent upon the diversity of opinion among men,—upon contradiction and discussion. A struggle for existence is as essential for the distinction and vigor of ideas, as for the distinction and vigor of plants and animals. Widespread uniformity of mental conditions tends to stagnation of mind, to the substitution of formulas in the place of principles, of prejudices in the place of rational convictions. Where uniformity is the rule, life becomes less diversified, rich, and interesting; each individual becomes of less worth, and the community of less importance. In such a society, public opinion exercises a tyrannical authority. Suspicious of independence and originality, it establishes a despotism of custom, encourages moral timidity, and promotes an essentially servile habit of mind. One of the marked and most disastrous features of a society in which such conditions prevail, is that the great body of its members are unconscious of the fact of their mental servitude, and take delight in the despotism in which they have a share, even while it deprives them of the privileges and rights of moral and mental independence.

In his essay, *On Liberty*, published thirty years ago, Mill dwelt on the despotism of custom as a standing hindrance to human advancement, and on the fact that it is their remarkable diversity of character and culture which "has made the European family of nations an improving, instead of a stationary, portion of mankind,"—diversity not only of one nation from another, but also among the people of which each is composed. But he called attention to the fact that "the circumstances which surround different classes and individuals, and shape their characters, are daily becoming more assimilated," to the

detriment of that development of individual faculties and powers upon which the improvement and elevation of society mainly depend, and to the confirming of the preponderance of an average, commonplace type of character, undistinguished by special excellence and deficient in originality. This assimilation has gone on more rapidly than ever during the generation that has passed since Mill wrote, and nowhere with more rapidity than in America. The general tendency of modern civilization, which he pointed out, to render mediocrity the ascendant power in society, has received no check, but seems, rather, to become steadily more positive, and is exhibited on the largest scale in America. Nor is it merely the ascendant power of mediocrity which is a characteristic feature of our actual civilization, but associated with it is an increase of vulgarity, by which I mean a predominance of the taste and standards of judgment of the uneducated and unrefined masses, over those of the more enlightened and better-instructed few. The material prosperity of the multitude, and the unexampled concentration of interest on material ends, have combined with the levelling tendency of democratic institutions, not merely to raise the low to a comparatively high plane of material and, in some respects, of moral existence, but also to compel the high to adapt themselves to a comparatively low plane of intellectual life. Quantity tells against quality. The just balance of values is not preserved. The principle of equality is extended into regions where it has no proper validity. Our public life, our literature, our journals, our churches, our amusements, our politics, all exhibit a condescension to the crowd, an adaptation to popular demands. There is a lack of independence and of leading; a lack of superior excellence in the nobler fields of effort and expression.

The American people are not to be blamed or condemned for this condition of things, any more than they are to be blamed for living on a new continent. Those only among us are to be blamed who, having better opportunities for self-culture than the great body of their countrymen, receiving better education, understanding better the meaning of things, accept with indifference the conditions of inferiority, and make no effort to raise the general standards of character and of conduct. For this condition is not one that mainly concerns matters of taste, and standards of judgment in respect to external and trivial affairs. It concerns the whole of our national life. The lack of intellectual elevation and of moral discrimination

is a source of national weakness. The prevalence of vulgarity is a national disgrace.

The earth has never presented a scene of more superb and widespread affluence than that which is to-day displayed in the great West, which has already become the chief seat of the power, as well as of the wealth, of our country. Nature has there offered the most splendid opportunities to human energies, and, during a hundred years, men have had perfect security and freedom in the enjoyment of these opportunities. They have succeeded in building up commonwealth after commonwealth in which there is almost universal material well-being. It is right and easy to sing pæans over such achievements. It is difficult for those who have accomplished, and who share in, such success, not to become elated with it. But the West is at a great disadvantage, as regards civilization, in the very fact of the vast scale and enormous growth of her prosperity. The imagination of her people has been touched by them, and their ideas have been shaped by them. Cut off by her impregnable position from direct relation with the seats of former culture, with no elevated traditions of her own, removed from the immediate influence of foreign interests, the West has naturally grown up insensible, in great measure, to the higher responsibilities involved in her unexampled opportunities, and comparatively indifferent to her share in the common inheritance of the treasures of thought and experience of the race. She has subordinated the concerns of the spirit to those of the body, and she is now paying the penalty, in the possession of wealth without due sense of its right use, in the dim, self-reproachful recognition of aims and instincts of the spirit long stunted by want of exercise, which now vaguely seek for satisfaction, and, finally, in the development of a popular life without resources, without elevation, without interest. The very energy displayed in the attainment of material things, may, indeed, now that the means of culture have been so abundantly secured, exhibit itself in acquiring the culture itself. Yet the prevailing spirit of the West, as shown in its public utterances, in its journals, in its poetry, in its politics, is not promising. It is not modest; it is not serious; it is not large-minded; it is not high-minded. In a word, it exaggerates the defects in the spirit and temper of the country at large.

On the solution of the problem how this spirit is to be improved, how the dangers resulting from materialism, and from the mediocrity and vulgarity that too generally accompany equality, are to

be removed or lessened, and on the application of the solution, the future of our country depends.

Much may be hoped from the dissatisfaction with the barrenness that now prevails in the fields of the higher intellectual life, from the sense of the lack of interest, and from the absence of large original sources of pleasure, refreshment, and invigoration of the spirit. And the more this dissatisfaction is felt, the more clear should be the recognition that the most direct remedy lies in the wider diffusion of the higher education,—that education by which the powers of thought are developed, and the moral energies strengthened and rightly directed.

The conception of a liberal education, an education that enlarges the scope of mental vision, invigorates the understanding, confirms the reason, quickens and disciplines the imagination, and, instilling into the soul of youth the sense of proportion between the things of the spirit and the things of sense, animates it with ambitions that are safeguards of character not less than motives of action, strengthening it against the multiform temptations to worldliness, which means selfishness, and to acceptance of popular standards of judgment, which means superficiality, inspiring it with the love of what is best in thought, and in those arts which are the expression of the ideal conceptions and aims of men,—the conception of an education such as this has grown faint among us. It needs revival and reinvigoration, not in the interest of the few, a select and eminent class, but in the interest of the many, of the whole community. For the condition of healthy, progressive life in a democracy like ours, the condition on which order, confidence, credit, and stability permanently depend, is the existence of a reasonable correspondence between its spiritual and its physical elements, between its mental and its material development. This correspondence is to be secured only by means of the highest attainable level of education. The education of the common school, even if universal, is not enough. Nor will the professional and scientific school, however excellent in its kind, supply what is needed. There must be a higher education still,—an education that shall train men to set a true value on the things of the spirit, as compared with those of the flesh, and to seek for wisdom as better than wealth; "for wisdom is a defence and money is a defence, but the excellency of wisdom is that it giveth life to them that have it." Wise men may, indeed, sometimes be found among those who have had no advantages of formal education, but

whose faculties have been disciplined by the hard experience of life, and by the culture which their own genius has supplied. Lincoln stands as the supreme example of men of this sort,—a man schooled by nature, circumstance, and his own heart; the equal of the greatest figures in history; the poor wise man who, by his wisdom, delivered the city. For nature had endowed him with a force of character that enabled him to make the best of life. But such endowment is as rare as it is precious, and it would be as wise to trust to a chance scattering of the seed to produce an abundant harvest, as to rely on the fortuitous conjunction of favoring elements for the supply of strong wise men, the leaders and helpers of their kind. Culture is as much needed for human beings as for the products of the earth. The value of education, in its proper sense, is not rendered questionable by the occasional appearance of men wise with a wisdom not acquired in the schools, and beyond that which they have power to impart.

It is to the institutions which provide the means of the highest education that the best interests of our national life are specially committed, for it is mainly through them that the advance of its intellectual development can be made to keep pace with its material progress. Upon them, more than upon any other of its institutions, the destiny of modern democracy depends. It is they that are the chief barriers against the ever-rising tide of ignorance and materialism. If life in America is to become worthy of its unparalleled opportunities; if the moral sentiments and principles of the people are to be maintained, uncorrupted by the enormous temptations of a merely sensual materialism; if intelligence is to be preserved sufficiently sound and active in the community to keep alive that self-criticism upon which improvement depends, and that self-control which is the root of due obedience to law; if our civilization is to be prevented from degenerating into a glittering barbarism of immeasurable vulgarity and essential feebleness; if our material prosperity is to become but the symbol and source of mental energy and moral excellence,—it is by the support, the increase, the steady improvement of the institutions devoted to the highest education of youth.

CHARLES ELIOT NORTON.

NEW PRINCIPLES IN EDUCATION.

Erfahren lehrt fahren. Experience teaches progress.—*German Proverb.*

If any genius should ever take it into his head to write a work of transcendental humor, or humor founded on a deep philosophical principle, like the Sanscrit Baïtal Pachisi, he may find it in the universal human conviction that all things to which *we* are accustomed, or what *we* like, are founded on immutable and eternal truth and justice, and that, *per contra*, what is foreign to us is "unnatural." When we reflect that, with the exception of mother's milk, nearly all palatal tastes are acquired, the cordial detestation with which the untravelled provincial of any country regards the *cuisine* of another is, from a general stand-point, deeply amusing. The writer has seen a sternly common-sensible New-Englander indignant even to rage at beholding a man drink *eau sucré;* he has dined with Egyptians who could not comprehend that there were in this world people who did not like assafœtida in a ragout, and has known a lady who sincerely believed that nobody in the world ever really enjoyed eating olives. He has known old East-Indians to taunt one another for liking or disliking that "dreadful devil's fruit, the durian," and has met with Bostonians who believed that any man in the world *must* love pork and beans, if he would only "just try them once," and who were equally persuaded that sauer-kraut was not fit for pigs. Yet even deeper seated are most intellectual or moral convictions, though history shows that what is the unnatural crime, "contrary to all human instincts," of one country, may be a sacrament, associated with everything that is holy and pure, in another, as is shown by the customs of that eminently conservative and strict race, the ancient Egyptians. However, there have been cosmopolite travellers who have laughed at food-prejudice, and now and then, though very rarely, some daring analyst, *de abditis rerum causis*, who has speculated, like the Kentuckian who sincerely wondered "why God made the Dimmycrats," on the differences of opinion in mankind. Horace and Martial and many more agreed with the proverb-makers that "what is one man's meat is another man's poison," and, in fact,

the number of popular sayings to this effect is in striking contradiction to the universal conviction.

But there is one belief which has never been contradicted, which is, that every man is born with a certain "capacity," or just so much "mind," or is naturally gifted or limited to an extent which virtually admits of no great increase. The quartz or diamond may be cut and polished or set, but it can never change its nature. Modern chemical analysis, led by Lockyer, is, however, tending to the theory of a *prima materia*, from which quartz or diamond is developed; while as regards Man, works are beginning to appear in which the authors endeavor to prove that certain faculties, such as memory, quickness of perception, attention, and interest, may, in connection with the artistic or constructive power, be so developed, by a judicious system of education, as to produce a result hitherto undreamed-of.

"Undreamed-of" is the word, since in all the speculations and visions of all the philosophers, seers, sorcerers, Cabalists, Neo-Platonists, Rosicrucians, Esoteric Buddhists, and Occultists of every age, there is no suspicion that man can receive any gift save from mystical illumination. The only exception to this, and the only gleam of true, clear light, is to be found in the New Testament, in Christ's teaching that all men are equal before God, and that there is one law of truth for high or low; from which we infer that under all natural disadvantages there are a deep-lying republicanism and a basis for infinite development. And, strange as it may seem to those who are accustomed widely to disassociate the two, there is in the works of Spinoza, and especially in the *Tractatus Theologico-politicus*, the most earnest conviction of the same great principle of humanity. Beyond allowing man all his natural rights, lies the step of making the utmost of all there is in him, which is the most advanced Christianity. The overwhelming mystery and miracle of the New Testament, before which all others shrink into nothing, is the incredible right—otherwise capacity—which it recognizes in all men. This was speedily exemplified in the training of humble fishermen and their like, and sending them forth to fill exalted missions. We admit that they were inspired; but be it observed that the miracle of inspiration *never ceased*, since to this day, wherever pure Christianity has acted in spirit and in truth, the poor or humble man has always enjoyed more privileges than under any other social system.

In the system of education to which I have referred, and according to which it is assumed that, by an easy and gradual process,

the mind of the average child may be trained to the possession of powers far beyond anything which any writer on the subject has ventured to hope, the first place is given to creating a memory before proceeding to fill it. The more carefully we study the subject, the more apparent does it become that, while men submit a prize-fighter, or a soldier, or an opera-singer, to a very long preparatory training, the object of which is to *create* strength, activity, aptness, courage, or a voice, they proceed at once, with mere babies, to fill with knowledge memories which are assumed to exist; to each pupil exactly so much as it is "gifted" with. Now, to learn to *memorize and to think together* is too much, and the great defect of our whole system of education is the non-intelligence of the tremendous force of the precept, "one thing at a time." It is a truth in education, worthy of being elevated into a law, that the more we reduce learning to the simplest principles, and the more thoroughly we teach them, the more will be learned. And commonplace as this may sound, it is practically a startling novelty, since nowhere has the analysis ever been made, nor, of course, has training been conducted according to it.

The method by which memory, or the power of memorizing, can be created, is so simple that any intelligent man or woman may easily test it. It consists of giving the pupil very easy lessons, to get perfectly by heart, with the distinct understanding that the meaning of the text forms no part of the task required. As I have said in my work on *Practical Education* (London: Whittaker & Co., 1888):

> "Proverbs or texts from Scripture are to be commended, since they are almost invariably in pure, simple, easy English. One thing only is to be insisted on, that the lesson for the day be learned absolutely *perfectly*, and that no effort be made to explain the text, as this will introduce a new and foreign element. Therefore it is necessary to select lessons which the pupils already understand."

Now, it is not known, but it is true, that the youngest pupils, knowing that they are expected only to memorize easy lessons, "take hold" of this work as if it were play. If necessary, let the daily exercise consist of only a single couplet or line, but let it be so learned that the pupil can repeat it without leading question or prompting. Rhymes are to be specially commended for beginners. But the great strength of the system consists in "reviewing." Herein lies a great truth little known—that nine-tenths of all we remember in life is very much more due to conscious or unconscious

reconsideration than to any primary vigorous mastery of it. And when a man passing middle life tells me that he is losing his memory, I reply: "Your 'memory' is probably the same as ever, but every additional day adds to what you put into it. And unless you review your acquisitions, as an officer does his men, their faces will grow unfamiliar." The truth that everything which is remembered is actually *a memory by itself* strongly confirms this view. Now, if we had, as children, acquired the faculty of going over in our mind, or of reviewing ideas, and cultivated it into a habit, we should not, at forty or fifty or sixty years, when the mind ought to be, like autumn fruit, in its best condition, be complaining of a decay of memory.

If the system here described be properly pursued, the pupil will, in about three months, begin to manifest a power of retaining what is read or heard which will seem, to any person ignorant of the cause, to be very remarkable. At this time, or as much sooner as may seem advisable to the teacher, according to the degree of aptness shown by the pupil, lessons from the book may be varied by oral sentences, or by calling the attention to incidents, facts, or events, stating them concisely, and requiring a subsequent repetition of the words. But this must be done with the greatest care and precaution. When *Practical Education* appeared, more than one English critic hastened to assure the public that this system was based on teaching a mere "verbal memory"; which was quite the same as protesting against learning letters as a first step to reading, or in the spirit of Mr. Weller's charity-boy, who, having mastered his alphabet, doubted "vether it's worth while goin' through so much to learn so little." Now, it will probably seem to the reader who seriously considers the system, that if a child is to be taught to write properly, it is better to provide it with good pens, ink and paper, seat and table, even at some little cost and delay, than to learn simply by scratching the wall or in the dirt. The teaching a child to remember and to review is radically distinct from acquiring "ideas," just as preparing a garden-bed is different from gathering ripe vegetables; but when it is well done, it aids marvellously to make a good crop. The truth is, men are so used to straining the intellect from the very beginning that they believe that, if any time be passed in preparation, it will become habitual; and, if clever enough, they may instance the Dutchman, who, having heard that to leap a ditch a man should take a preparatory run, with Teutonic thoroughness took one of ten miles, with which he was so wearied that ere he

made his jump he was fain to lie down and rest. Against which I would urge a certain Algonkin Indian tale, which tells how a certain youth, by exercising himself in running, attained such skill that he could make the most incredible leaps, and so passed for a sorcerer. The trouble with the Dutchman was, not that he ran ten miles, *but that he reserved his run till the time came to make the leap.* If he had begun training by such running, day by day, he would have cleared the ditch without trouble. Let the objectors rest assured that the child who is provided with even a good "verbal memory" is far better fitted for feats of advanced intelligence, and will have more ideas in the end, than one whose power of retaining has not been exercised. For it is not words alone which are thus acquired, but the habit of remembering and reviewing, which cannot be perfectly got by working at words and ideas at the same time. "By memorizing with absolute accuracy, this only being required, the dullest pupils soon perceive that they are working not to master a fact, but a faculty."

David Kay, who has made a life study of memory, and whose truly great work on the subject is far more comprehensive and advanced than any other with which I am acquainted, has declared that there is no point of any consequence in which he differs from me. Now, I have declared that, in much less time than would be supposed possible by any who had not studied the subject, a child may learn to repeat a page from a single reading, or from hearing it read, and that, if reviewing has become habitual and instinctive, the whole will be impressed permanently on the memory, or, rather, become a distinct memory by itself. This is the first step, and there is not the least danger that this process will hinder intellectual development.

The teacher will naturally separate pupils into classes according to age and intelligence. When they manifest absolute capacity to learn with ease, and to review frequently and *instinctively*, it may be observed that a higher degree of will is created, and with it a corresponding power of attention and interest. While it is assumed that no special effort is made to teach *ideas* with memory, on the other hand, it is not to be supposed (as many have done) that great pains are to be taken to teach nothing but meaningless rubbish. A certain degree of meaning, or so much as the learner's mind is adapted to receive without effort or strain, greatly facilitates acquisition. And it will certainly be found that so much of this as is contained in

texts, rhyming proverbs, simple little lyrics, fables, and extracts from authors distinguished for conciseness and purity of style, will inevitably enter into the mind, and the most be made of it by the process of constantly reviewing or familiarizing it.

It is a popular delusion that to build up a great memory weakens the intellect. To this it may be replied that great scholars and thinkers have great memories; that in innumerable instances these memories are distinctly due to a system of early, although involuntary, culture, allied to that which I recommend; and, thirdly, that some of the greatest works of intellect which the world has ever known, were produced mentally and preserved orally for many centuries, and that, in fact, before the invention of printing, men not only composed such works as those of Homer, the Mahâbhârata, and Pânini's grammar, but carried them verbally, with whole literatures of similar works, through the ages. And it will hardly be credited that an eminent English man of science, in reviewing *Practical Education*, actually declared that all the stories told of these instances of wonderful memory in Orientals are greatly exaggerated; which is much easier said than to prove that Pânini's grammar, with the glosses, was *not* handed down, as Max Müller declares, for three-hundred-and-fifty years, or that there are not now living Red Indians, as I assert from my own knowledge, who carry in their heads whole libraries of legends.

Assuming that the pupil has, after, let us say, from one year to eighteen months of training, acquired the art of memorizing and reviewing, it will be found advisable, before this point is reached, to introduce exercises in quickness of perception. These range from simple beginnings, which are literally mechanical, to games which develop certain phases of tact and ready insight, up to purely intellectual exercises, the steps being gradual, or almost imperceptible. And to begin with, I would call attention to a fact which deserves serious study. This is that a very stupid child, or one dull below the average, can, by very simple training, be led first to an animal-like quickness of watching or observing, associating, and remembering certain things, and thence to far higher culture, when an intellectual beginning would have failed altogether. Thus London thieves (*vide Practical Education*) train any boy to be "fly," or sharp, by tossing up handfuls of small objects, such as coins, keys, pebbles, etc., and obliging him to observe all there is at a glance and to describe it. A sentence written on a revolving black-board before a class, if in a

single line, is soon read in a second; in due time the pupils will read ten lines in the same time. All games increase the faculty, which is, however, developed to the highest degree, in the mechanical stage, by exercises in visual perception, as first set forth by Robert Houdin and the artist Couture. For want of space, I refer the reader interested in this subject to Dr. Clarke's work on vision, to the papers by Francis Galton, to Kay on memory, and to *Practical Education.*

Quickness of perception, even when exercised in these rudimentary forms, prevents memory from becoming that ruthless and stupid lord of the castle of intellect which so many writers declare he will infallibly be, if too much developed betimes. But it is really difficult to understand how it is possible for a boy to be a stupid victim of "verbal memory," when his mind, as soon as memory begins to ripen, is gradually and cautiously trained in harmony with it, to activity and shrewd observation directed by scientific skill. The second step of this second stage is attained in exercises in mental arithmetic, geography, grammar, and composition, the value of which is so great that it is no great wonder some thinkers have wished that most education was based upon them. Let it be remembered that memorizing and reviewing are supposed to form at the same time subjects of mental culture, and it will be understood how much more thoroughly a sum or a fact in geography will be mastered, first, by its being retained and reviewed by a mind accustomed to such work, and, secondly, by the mind being trained and exercised in every phase of quick perception. There is nothing so little understood as the value or power of mutual influences in education, and I shall recur to it anon.

If the reader asks at what stage, or when, does intellectual education, or thought, begin in this system, I can only say that it must depend on the teacher and the pupil. When the latter manifests real mastery of memory and quickness of perception, studies which require reflection and awaken thought, if very judiciously and gradually introduced, will be found to stimulate and aid the two primary factors. Firstly, the process will be found to begin with the pupil himself, if there are any ideas in the exercises given to him; secondly, it must increase with the more advanced lessons in quickness of perception.

All of my readers who are of middle age can recall the time when a chemist, an astronomer, a botanist, was little or nothing else. To-day an astronomer who is not also a chemist is far behind the time.

Science is now what, in decorative art, is called of the "give and take" pattern. Ere long this will be recognized as a principle in education. The great illustration of this is exemplified in the third stage of training the mind, or in the development of the constructive faculties. This we may call industrial art. The beginning of this is design. Instead of copying "pictures," the pupil should begin with being taught how to invent and execute very simple outline patterns founded on the circle and spiral, adhering at first to the vine, or the principle of organic development as set forth in vegetation. This is to be followed and accompanied by practice in modelling in clay, or embroidery, carving easy panels in wood, or working in sheet-leather, brass, inlaying, and rudimentary carpentering. These and many other branches include what are called the minor arts, which are thus distinguished from the higher arts, such as painting in colors, fresco, and sculpture. Any child who can write, can draw or design, and any one who can design, can master the minor arts as a single art. I mean by this that the pupil of almost any age, especially after the eighth or ninth year, after learning the rudiments of design and modelling in a school where many of the minor arts are being taught, can, after a few weeks, turn his or her hand to any of them with the absolute certainty of being able to execute a fairly good piece of work in them at the first effort. I have had at least two thousand pupils pass through my hands. I never knew one of them, who took one or two lessons a week, who could not learn to do all of this in from six months to a year, and the experience of at least ten thousand, who have been taught in the three hundred schools and classes of the British Home Arts and Industries Association, fully establishes it. The most convincing proofs of it, however, which I have seen during the past eighteen months, were the work of pupils of the public school in Budapesth, Hungary, in which there was furniture, executed for the Arch-Duke, that was simply magnificent; and in the exhibition of the British Association referred to, in which were specimens of pottery, lace, embroidery, carved furniture, inlaying, mosaic, brass metal-work, Venetian iron scroll-work, modelling, and other arts, none of it inferior or of the "fair and fancy-work" description, while for the greater part it surpassed what is to be seen in most shops by the vigor and originality of design.

"It will be a new idea to many, and yet it is true," said one of the most distinguished men of letters and art-scholars in England to me, "that the training of children in industrial art bears closely on and

aids intellectual culture." We are all accustomed to hear or say, in vague fashion, that *art*—by which we understand looking at pictures and statues, and going to concerts, *et cætera*—" refines and educates." But the practical man and Philistine does not understand this. Now, I will give a fact which he can understand. When a number of these practical people began to hint that the Industrial Art public school of Philadelphia, founded by me, interfered with their regular studies, inquiry showed that, among the 110,000 pupils in the public schools of that city, those who attended the art-school stood *highest of all in all studies.* As a further illustration, let us suppose two boys of equal age and capacity, both of whom attend an ordinary school. One goes twice a week to art-classes, where he learns to know what constitutes a good design, learns something of the different schools and methods of art, learns to exercise taste, and, finally, to invent and execute work. Can there be any question as to which boy will be the cleverer? He who has been at the art-class will be apter not only to make shoes, or become a tailor, or go into a shop, but he will even handle the tools of a coal-digger or gardener better than the other. Art-creativeness stimulates every faculty; and this, be it observed, has been absolutely *proved* by experiment and inquiry in thousands of instances.

Now, it must be observed that memory and quickness of perception blend and are perfected in the exercise and development of the constructive faculties; that is to say, in design or invention, carried out in hand-work. The three will be found practically to connect, balance, and strengthen one another, and from the beginning thus made, all of the usual branches of study may be incorporated into the general system. One thing should be observed, which is that the utmost pains should be taken at all times to keep up, by occasional reviewing, all that has been learned. Under this other system, all that is learned is of such value that one can hardly conceive of any one, who has the struggle for life before him, suffering such faculties to perish for want of practice. The objection which has been strongly urged, that in such education faculties would be developed, but not intellect or thought, will seem, to those who think logically, like objecting to gymnastic training because it confers strength, but does not teach the pupil every way in which strength may be employed. It is impossible that a person with a mighty memory, aided by quickness of perception, should not be very easily led to observe—that is, to *attend to*, and consequently to

take an interest in—infinitely more subjects than one who has not had this discipline.

It is a fact which admits of no dispute, that, in thousands of instances, great scholars or great men have owed their ability, in a great measure, to the influence of some teacher who awoke in them observation and interest in many things beyond the ordinary range of study. Not less remarkable are the instances in which certain school-masters have had a very large proportion of pupils who afterward distinguished themselves. These preceptors have not always been, themselves, remarkable for scholarship or discipline: that in which they excelled was general knowledge of many things, and in the habit of making friends of their scholars, and discussing with them the books in which they themselves were interested. My limit forbids me to follow up this subject; I can only say that I believe that attention and interest may be made as distinctly a part of a child's education, as developing the memory.

When I studied this whole system or subject many years ago, I was at once firmly convinced of the practicability of teaching or forming memory and quickness of perception. Countless thousands of men had, in many lands, before the invention of printing, shown that not only chronicles and epics could be remembered, but even learned by once hearing, as was usual among bards and troubadours. The experiences of Robert Houdin, and other authorities, showed as conclusively the innate power of quick perception allied to memory. It seemed almost self-evident that here were elements which could be made the basis of an ordinary education. As regarded the constructive faculty, it was certainly true that, especially in the east, millions of children had, from six years of age upward, shown that they could become artistic artisans, producing profitable work, but what had nowhere been successfully established or proved, either in America or Europe, as lately as 1879, was that industrial art-work could be made a branch of education in public schools for children from eight to fourteen years of age—that is to say, boys and girls after the infant-school or kindergarten, and before the time when most children leave school altogether. That *boys* of fourteen could learn a trade was no novelty, though to this day innumerable people keep repeating that the sole object of industrial education is to teach *boys* "how to make a living," the preparation of them for this, betimes, being ignored. I found the solution of the problem in teaching the minor arts based on original design. This is effectively

the only *work* allied to development of the mental faculties of which children are capable, and in this, design plays a far more important part than would at first appear. Design at once awakens the artistic or creative sense, as was illustrated by one of my young pupils, who triumphantly remarked to a rival in another school, who was displaying some superior drawings: "Oh, yes, but you only *copy* your pictures—we *make* ours." But this had not been fully tested: it was the one part of the whole system of which I had, I will not say doubt, but great apprehension lest I should find difficulties in its practical realization. I, therefore, in collaboration with Mrs. Jebb, of Ellesmere, England, set to work to carry it out in two forms;—Mrs. Jebb, by establishing, in Great Britain, classes of village arts and industries, in which the pupils were generally children attending school, while I, in Philadelphia, undertook, by teaching classes in industrial art, to show that boys and girls in the public schools could at the same time develop their constructive faculties. I succeeded in doing far more than I anticipated, for I made the discovery that both in America and England, beyond all doubt whatever, the practice of decorative art, guided by design, increases all the intellectual powers of a child. Thus in digging for silver I came upon a vein of gold.

What now remains to be done, since the doubtful branch has first of all been made a practical certainty, is to establish a school in which this system, as I have set it forth, shall be thoroughly taught, tested, and tried. *Probiren geht über Studiren*,—"the proof of the pudding is in the eating,"—and it were better if, instead of theoretical discussion, there could be a practical trial. The day seldom passes in which I do not see, in the newspapers, mention of some great gift or legacy to be devoted to some object perhaps not more deserving encouragement than this. Should any who may take an interest in what I have written, desire to establish such a school, I am willing to devote myself to the work. What it really amounts to is the combining in a single system, and reducing to simple practice, that which has been executed thousands of times in scattered instances. And I am confident that the labor or difficulty of teaching the entire system, as here set forth, would not be one-tenth of that which I overcame in proving that industrial art alone could be made a branch, in common with others, in public schools.

CHARLES G. LELAND.

THE RENAISSANCE OF BARBARISM.

FROM an exhaustive analysis of the criminological aspects of the last census by Mr. Wines, in recent numbers of the *International Record of Charities and Correction*, we gather, in a distinctly objective form, some extremely suggestive and melancholy facts regarding our defective, dependent, and delinquent classes. Our thanks, the thanks of every citizen and of every professional sociologist, are due to Mr. Wines for his labor of love and duty, in so concisely giving us our bearings and landmarks in the now-rising flood of immorality and crime in the State and Nation.

It is not my intention to deal with dry statistics, further than to establish, as firmly as it is possible for statistics to establish, the fact that we are in a period of moral decadence—a decadence which is not confined to Massachusetts and the United States, but which casts its shadow over the European continent. This moral decadence is vigorously denied by those who do not look beneath the surface, and who ask us to look back a hundred years and contrast the state of society then, with its present state. Education is more general, our literacy greatly increased, our habits and tastes more refined—a statement that no one will controvert when made in reference to the state of society in the whole country; but with this increasing literacy and refinement, it is found that we have a decreasing moral sense, and with increasing education, an increasing ability in the commitment and concealment of crime.

With the general refinement of habits and tastes, our pride and self-esteem have increased; with increased culture, we have increased self-control in direct ratio with that culture, and, consequent upon this, a sensible separation of the masses into classes is going on; in general terms, a separation of those who have, from those who have not, a complete control of their appetites and passions. Brutal drunkenness and dissoluteness, and the outrageous, inhuman, and barbarous crimes, are now generally confined to the lowest class in our society. The habits and crimes which indicate education, social position, and a degree of refinement,—such as breaches of trusts; skilfully-concealed frauds; public frauds, which, by political

influence, receive the sanction of law; embezzlements, which are compromised to protect either the criminal or victim, or both together; cheating, under the pretence of insolvency; the misappropriation of public moneys; skilful burglaries, and other similar crimes,—are the peculiar province of the great middle class. Those secured in their position by wealth, inherited or acquired in business or profession, by superior intellectual gifts, by political preferment, and by the social authority which such advantages confer, have apparently no greater development of the moral sense or stronger convictions of duty, but are restrained by the dignity of their position, by heredity, by the *esprit de classe*, by the absence of necessity, from the commission of crimes and beastly acts, and constitute the higher class.

It is possible, then, for one belonging to either the middle or higher of these classes, who does not seek or care to discover motives, who does not care to study the phenomena of our daily life, or to see unpleasant sights, to assert conscientiously that crime has greatly decreased, and is decreasing; that drunkenness is more uncommon now than in his youth, or in the days of his father or grandfather, because he is not personally cognizant of crime, and drunkenness has ceased among his associates. But would he continue to make this assertion, if he made daily visits to the slums of London, Glasgow, Liverpool, Boston, or New York? It is true that all these classes furnish their quotas of detected criminals, but, as will be apparent, the great and ever-increasing majority is furnished by the brutalized class.

"Truth," says the Earl of Lytton, "like dynamite and other explosives, is not to be employed without special precautions." But a much higher authority declares that "to do justice and judgment is more acceptable unto the Lord than sacrifice." The time long since arrived when it was imperatively demanded that we should not only tell the truth, but do the justice and judgment which that truth requires.

We have flattered ourselves that we had accumulated a stock of religious principles, of high morality, of educational experience, which was to last for all time, and against which no vicissitudes or exigencies arising from the increasing complexities of our modern life could prevail: to use a commercial phrase, we have been banking upon the capital acquired in a former generation; upon an inheritance derived from our Pilgrim and Puritan ancestry, and, adding nothing

to it, we are, under the pressure of increasing needs and a new environment, bankrupt. Of this moral insolvency, this present inability of modern society to maintain a high ethical standard or a moral progression, there is everywhere, and in all directions, at home and abroad, abundant evidence.

We do not propose to repeat moral commonplaces, however useful they may be at times, but to present a few facts gathered by Mr. Wines, showing distinctly the increase of our defective and delinquent classes, and then to present a few suggestions to which the facts seem naturally to lead. Of the general increase of crime in the United States Mr. Wines says:

"An examination of such reports [State-prison reports] as I have been able to accumulate, for a long term of years past, has led me to express the conviction that, judging by the number of commitments, year by year, to our penitentiaries and State-prisons, crime has increased in the United States, relatively to the population, since the war, by not less than one-third."

Much of this statistical increase is, no doubt, due to improved methods and greater care in taking the census;

"but that it represents a real increase, either in the amount of crime committed, or in the amount of punishment inflicted, can scarcely be doubted, when it is considered that the growth of the prison population has been progressive since the year 1850." "In that year, the ratio of prisoners to population was but . . . . . .000,290.
In 1860 it was . . . . . .000,607.
In 1870 " . . . . . .000,853.
In 1880 " . . . . . .001,169."

Which we tabulate as follows:

YEAR.	RATIO OF PRISONERS TO POPULATION.	NUMBER OF PRISONERS TO THE MILLION PERSONS.	NUMBER OF CONVICTS TO PERSONS.
1850	.000,290	290	1 to 3,448+
1860	.000,607	607	1 to 1,647+
1870	.000,853	853	1 to 1,172+
1880	.001,169	1,169	1 to 855+

showing an increase in the ratio of prisoners to population of from 1 in 3,448, in 1850, to 1 in 855, in 1880.

The number of prisoners in the United States, June 1, 1880, not including the inmates of reformatories for juvenile delinquents, was 58,609; the number of these inmates was 11,468, and if we class them

as criminals and prisoners, the ratio will be raised from 1 to 855, to 1 to 715+, for that year.

If any doubt remains as to the fact of such statistics being conclusive evidence of the increase of crime, it may possibly be removed by the analogous fact that statistical crime has increased in a remarkable ratio in my own State of Massachusetts during the same term; for, in 1850, Massachusetts had 1 prisoner to 804 + of its population, the United States having 1 to 3,448 +; and, in 1880, 1 to 487 +, the United States having 1 to 855; while, in 1887, Massachusetts had 1 criminal to every 373 +. It was asserted, in the last National Prison Congress, by a Massachusetts member (as reported), in explanation of our remarkable increase of crime, that it "does not increase in Massachusetts out of proportion to the increase of population." It is possible that the member was misreported, for the facts seem to contradict his statement most emphatically; the increase in population from 1850 to 1880 being but 79 per cent., while the increase of prison population was 196 per cent. Again, if we take the period from 1850 to 1887 (estimating the population of the latter year as 2 per cent. greater than in 1885), we have an increase in population of 99 per cent., and an increase in prison population of 320 + per cent.

This great increase in crime is not entirely due to our foreign-born population, as we are so often told, for, in 1850, we had but 1 native prisoner to 1,267 + of population, and, in 1880, 1 to 615 +. During the same term, the increase in our native population was but 61+ per cent., while the increase in native prisoners was 233 + per cent. The general increase of crime in the native population of the country is remarked by Mr. Wines.

"The percentage of foreign-born prisoners, as compared with that of natives, is very much less now than it was in 1850; now it is a little less than double; but then it was more than five times that of native prisoners. In other words, the increase of crime has been very much greater among the native than among the foreign population."

The weakness of statistics as standards of comparison between sections or States, owing to divergent codes, laws, punishments, and the differing degrees of efficiency in the enforcement of law, is well understood; when, however, they are used to show the renaissance or decadence of crime in the whole country, or in an individual State, their value is much enhanced, for, after due allowance is made for their limitations, consequent on the varying degrees of efficiency

in the execution of law and the idiosyncracies of legislation, the unwelcome fact remains

"that all statistics of crime, however well founded and collated, must obviously fail to determine the exact degree of immorality and vice existing in the community at any given time: it is only when the common law is broken that secret vice, always festering and rankling beneath the surface of society, breaks out into crime, and we become statistically cognizant of it." *

It is the undiscovered, undetected, unpunished crimes—"these half-crimes, half-violations of law and infractions of the moral code," as Mr. Tarde calls them—the criminals outside of prison walls, that form the sweeping torrent, and statistics are but an index of the wrecks it casts upon its shore.

"There is no novelty in the observation that cities attract criminals and breed crime," says Mr. Wines. "But it derives additional confirmation from the fact that the thirty-two cities of this country which contain more than 50,000 inhabitants each, and whose aggregate population is 7,158,827, report 19,143 prisoners, which is at the rate of 1 to 373 of population, or .002,677; a ratio two-and-a-fourth times as great as in the country at large,"—a fact of especial and important interest to us, as it is *nearly the exact ratio of prisoners to population in the State of Massachusetts.*

Of the increase of crime on the European continent, we have little space to dwell; it will suffice to state that

"in France, in a half-century, the number of criminals has increased three times, and the number of *récidivists* five times." †

"In Saxony, within a few years, criminals under eighteen years of age have increased (430%) four hundred and thirty per cent., and child criminals (100%) one hundred per cent." ‡

"In the eight old provinces of Prussia, offences against property have increased by nearly 50 per cent., and those which imply education on the part of the offenders grew disproportionately. Thus, falsified accounts increased cent. per cent., fraudulent bankruptcy, nearly 150 per cent., and official frauds, over 350 per cent."

"In Bavaria, for seven years ending 1879, impure violence increased 237 per cent., and in Wurtemburg, 218 per cent., while, for twenty-four years in England, the increase was but .67."

To return to our own country, the youthfulness of our criminal population is a very striking fact. "The average age of prisoners in the United States is 29 years and 7 months; a little more than a fourth are under 23 years, rather more than a third are under 25,

* Art. "Moral and Industrial Training in Public Schools."—*Andover Review.*

† Report *Société Générale des Prisons.*

‡ Von Oettingen's *Moralstatistick.*

and more than one-half are under 28." As Mr. Wines very justly remarks, "The youth of the great majority of those detained in prison ought to be regarded as an incentive and an inspiration to more earnest efforts for their reformation."

Among the most active and important factors in our social demoralization, is the decline, and in very many instances and localities, the absolute extinction, of home life, of home training, and of religious, moral, and industrial educational influences. This condition is, no doubt, due, in a great measure, to the increasing movement of our population from the country to the cities, the consequent overcrowding and herding together of all classes in cattle-pens called tenements, in apartments, in hotels, in boarding-houses, where the individuality of the family is lost, and its authority disregarded or unknown. The managers and chaplains of our prisons and reformatories are unanimous in the opinion that the great cause of crime is not so much ignorance as the absence of a home at the critical time in youth, and in instances where systematic inquiry has been made of the criminal class, for a series of years, it has been found that a very large proportion was without any proper home restraint or influence during the later years of minority. The indications are that among the people where the family life, as a means of social refinement, education, and discipline, is unknown or decadent, crime abounds; and among the people where the family autonomy is maintained, and the principles of the Christian faith have the firmest hold, crime declines. One of the direct results of the decline of influence of the family and the Church, is "the invalidation of the moral code, the prevalence of ethical agnosticism and scepticism as to all first principles." Hence that indifference and laxity of public opinion which are an important factor in the increase of crime. "The kind of crime the most excused, the least-considered crime, the least crime in fact, is precisely that which is the most common," says Mr. Tarde.

Another great factor in the increase of crime, consequent upon weakening morality, is drunkenness. Chaplain Horsley, formerly of Her Majesty's prison Clerkenwell, in answer to the question, "What proportion of crime is, directly or indirectly, due to intemperate habits in the matter of drink?" replies: "My answer, drawn from the experience of ten years, during which over a hundred thousand men and women have come under my notice, is that half of the crime of England and Wales is directly, and an additional one-

fourth indirectly, caused by intemperance,"—a total, directly and indirectly, of 75 per cent. Authorities in the United States state that the proportion is much greater than that; and some English authorities place it as high as 90 per cent. How intimately this sin is connected with our own record of crime in Massachusetts, may be inferred from the fact that *Maine and Massachusetts have the largest number of saloon-keepers, or liquor-sellers, of all the States in the Union, and New York, Massachusetts, and Pennsylvania, the largest number of drunkards!* Its prevalence in the country will be realized from the fact that in the 492 towns in the United States having over 5,000 inhabitants each, and a total population of 12,669,181, there is one liquor saloon to every 160 inhabitants. Allowance must be made, of course, for the districts which some of these centres supply; but, after making liberal allowances, Mr. Wines thinks that we shall have one for every 250 adults in the United States. To bring the figures more directly home, Boston had, or was said to have, 2,900 liquor saloons, or 1 to every 125 persons, in 1886, and one arrest to every twelve and a half individuals; in the country at large there was one arrest for every twenty inhabitants in 1880.

Next to drunkenness as a factor in crime, its progeny, which inherits its baneful habits of lawlessness and dissoluteness, and perpetuates them in ever-increasing ratio, is to be considered. The influence of heredity in multiplying our criminal classes, and in their anatomical, physiological, and mental degeneration, has never been fully comprehended; the instance cited by Dr. Elisha Harris of one Margaret, a pauper, assisted out of house in a New York county, and whose descendants, to the number of two-hundred, have been criminals, and cursed the county ever since, is doubtless but one of thousands of similar instances in which the sowing of the wind produces the whirlwind.

Another important multiplier of crime is the exclusively intellectual character of our present system of education; to repeat a remark of Locke, which is as true to-day as when he made it, our "schools fit us for the university rather than for the world." Neglecting, not without an assumption of superior knowledge, the traditions which still surround us of an education which was perfect in its adaptation of means to the end, and in which our Puritan and Pilgrim fathers had anticipated Rousseau, that great apostle of educational reform, we have declared that, as the intellectual faculties are superior to and dominate all others, they alone shall be culti-

vated, to the exclusion of the body and in forgetfulness of their inter-dependence. With the same fatuity, want of foresight, and indifference to the true purpose of education,—the development of all the powers of body and mind,—we have decreed the exclusion of religious and manual training, and the neglect of those faculties which are most potent in the formation and determination of a broad, stable, and upright character. I am speaking of a "system," the scheme of our education as a whole, and not of the few exceptions, by which the iron rule is only made more prominent.

We cannot but confess that the Roman Church, in asserting that religion is the foundation of all true education, has reason, philosophy, and history behind it. It is no new discovery; it is the rock upon which our Republic was built, and which was once acknowledged in Church and State and school. President Dunster, in laying the foundations of our oldest and greatest university, declared, in his rules and precepts, that "Christ must be laid in the bottom, as the only foundation of all sound knowledge and learning." The mistake of the Roman Catholics is that, as members of a government whose cardinal principle is perfect religious freedom, and which guarantees equal rights to all sects, they insist upon the teaching of religious dogmas, and are intolerant of any teaching which seems to controvert them, however unsectarian that teaching may be,—a position which is neither philosophical nor just. The religion of Christ is, fortunately, not confined and limited to the narrow field enclosed by the dogmas of any particular sect. Man, as Pauliat says, "is a religious animal," and, for his proper sustenance and complete development, must have food for that special function of the spirit and anchor to his passions; if that food cannot be had at home, and the Church fails to reach him, the school must furnish it; there is no other alternative. It is claimed that this religious, moral, and physical development is attained, sensibly or insensibly, under our present system and curriculum, and that there is no need of or call for special instruction. Let the present deficient moral sense, the criminal tendencies, as shown in our statistics, and the physical degeneration of our youth, be a sufficient refutation of that claim.

Still another factor in the increase of juvenile crime is the egoism, the false conceptions of life, the sharpness (miscalled shrewdness), the aversion to labor, the disregard of authority, the shallowness, the conceit, the scepticism, resulting not alone from

the prominence given to intellectual culture, but from our neglect to give the great majority of our school population, who graduate at about the age of fourteen, an hour's instruction as to their own civil rights and the duties owing to themselves, to society, and to the government which guarantees those rights, and of which they are a part. Egoism and an imperfect moral sense are the foundation stones of a criminal career. Says a writer in *The Summary:*

"I have met a great many criminals, but never more than two or three who had anything like a proper appreciation of their true relations to others, or of their own and others' rights and duties. . . . It is a startling fact that the average criminal has hardly any clearer conception of his own position and of his actual relations to society than the average lunatic. . . . The basis of criminal action is egoism. It is egoism that prevents the criminal from properly estimating his own limitations and the rights of others in property, and it is egoism that blinds his mental perception and leaves him a prey to all manner of silly conceits and fancies regarding his own condition and power."

Do we need a stronger argument than this for the immediate introduction into the curriculum of our *grammar-schools* of suitable textbooks of instruction in the elements of civics, which shall teach in a concrete form the important truth that we are members one of another?

One other important cause of crime is a deficiency of the logical faculty—the incapacity to reason inductively. This factor is particularly conspicuous in our negro population. Mr. Wines estimates that the percentage of the colored population in prison is two-and-a-half times as great as that of the whites, being for the latter 964 to the million, and for the former 2,480 to the million; the tendency manifested by them to commit crimes against property is 50 per cent. greater than among the native white population. The ratio would be much more strikingly against the negro, if his crimes, particularly those of passion, were discovered, or more frequently prosecuted, when discovered; there is a notorious laxity in prosecutions for crime in sections remote from large centres of population, and especially is it the case where the negro is in a majority. Mr. Wines is right in attributing the notorious disregard of the negro for the rights of property, in a measure, to his previous condition of slavery; but it will not fully account for his criminal character a quarter of a century after his emancipation. The negro has little inclination for, and small ability in, drawing conclusions from premises, or of connecting effects with causes. This observation is confirmed by the experience of Dr. Wey, of the Elmira State Reformatory, New

York, with criminals of all classes. He says: "The average criminal displays a remarkable ignorance of the science of numbers, other things being equal; as if there is in his composition a deficiency of logical, deductive, and analytical power." Unfortunately for the negro, this mental defect is a racial one.

I have no space to mention, except incidentally, a few of the secondary or subsidiary and accidental causes of crime. Prominently among these we place the popular fallacy on which we have based our educational system, that intellectual culture prevents crime. Experience, observation, history and statistics, prove the contrary overwhelmingly.

An exceptional cause of crime by which we have suffered during the last thirty years, and which no doubt has had an important influence in raising the ratio of crime, by disturbing our moral balance, is the War of the Rebellion.

I suggest as a cause not too indirect, the prominence given, in our modern culture, to the understanding, at whose bar every other faculty of the mind, every generous impulse of the heart, in abject servitude, is forced to appear and prove its right to exist. Of the tyranny of this faculty it has been pithily said, "The mere understanding, however useful and indispensable, is the meanest faculty of the human mind."

Among the youth, an ever-active motive to crime is the glamour and romance too frequently thrown about it in the periodical literature of the day; the scandalous and depraved character of the heroes and heroines of the popular novel; the glorification by the theatre of morbid and sensual appetites and passions; and other similar influences which are too well known to require repetition.

All these, and many other influences, motives, and causes, have produced a social condition portrayed by M. Caro. "I asked," he says, "a young romancer, already celebrated, why we encountered in his books so few honest men. 'It is,' said he, 'because I have encountered so few in life; virtue has become tiresome as a thesis—it is no longer *la mode*.'" For our latitude, this may be at the moment a slight exaggeration; but it will be apparent to every observer that we are rapidly approaching the time when it can as truly be said of our own as of the French society of the present decade.

GEORGE R. STETSON.

THE EDUCATION OF THE MASSES.

THE Americans, as a nation, have but recently awakened, in any degree, to the fact that education is something more than a matter of routine; that the understanding of a child cannot be properly developed by mere rule-of-thumb methods. Excellent as many of our schools have been, and conspicuous as the exceptions to general systems of teaching have stood out, the appreciation of a necessity for something in education beyond the simple imparting of information, has scarcely entered the mind of the average American. This century has produced great men and great minds. So will all epochs and all countries, be the conditions never so adverse. Better or worse methods of general education do not materially affect either their number or their quality. Rules and systems are not for them: they make their own paths, levelling mountains and bridging abysses, if need be, to clear the way to their appointed goal. In the exceptional man, the genius, public education is not interested. The slowly-plodding millions, without fame, almost without identity, must, however, be provided for; and with their training, their uplifting, the State and the Nation are deeply and seriously concerned.

Especially difficult has the problem become since the beginning of the enormous influx of foreign population. So peculiar were the conditions of the settlement of America, so thoroughly were the selection of the fittest to survive, and the destruction of the cripples and drones, brought about by the extraordinary difficulties surrounding existence in the New World, and—in the North, at least—by the rigid public sentiment of the Puritan, that the first settlers and their immediate descendants exhibited native vigor of mind and body that needed no spur to be progressive. Our forefathers improved themselves and their surroundings with a rapidity almost unparalleled. The demon of work within them planned and builded and wrought with giant strength, and founded a nation wonderfully vigorous in body and in the ruder qualities of mind, but deficient in many of the finer senses and perceptions. Proper and necessary as is such thorough physical building-up, speedy as is the ruin of a State

not founded on healthy being, this magnificent growth has within it, nevertheless, certain elements of great danger. In the very wantonness of perfect well-being, the nation may injure itself; in the pride of lustiness, it may refuse to take heed of pitfalls in its path.

One of the greatest of these dangers is that from immigration,—a source of evil which, by judicious management, may be converted into a means of immense blessing. In dealing with the problem of immigration, the adults must be left much as we find them, seeking only so to regulate their incoming and dispersion through the country that the dangerous elements shall be kept at the minimum, and shall be widely scattered. Little more than this can be done with them; but in their children, and children's children, the State finds, perhaps, its most serious charge. Excepting Oriental peoples, assimilation of foreign with native populations is, in varying degrees, exceedingly rapid. Amalgamation may, however, take place in two ways: the foreigners may approximate themselves to the standard of life of the country receiving them, or they may pervert the native population to foreign, and often pernicious, methods of thought and action. It is this latter tendency which, in the case of the majority of immigrants, must be combated, in order that the foundations of government may not be weakened by the inflowing waves of population, semi-civilized or semi-barbarous, from all quarters of the world. Below a certain stratum of the social structure, all populations have a tendency towards degeneration,—a tendency enormously increased by contact with classes upon a still lower plane. The degeneration of one level will inevitably affect the higher strata, including those possessing, in themselves, a slight tendency to self-improvement. If the degenerative leaven be not destroyed, if the germ of advancement in the lowest tier of those possessing ambition be not fostered, and if the seed of progress in each successive lower stratum be not sown, then will the strength of civilization be more and more sapped until the whole structure falls.

To meet the grave conditions brought about both by the influx of foreign population and by a partial cessation of native ambition, incident to eased material conditions of life, it is evident that the old methods of teaching are not adequate. It is not enough to send children to school, there to be drilled lifelessly, upon a dull routine. A boy or girl equipped with the arts of reading, writing, and cipher-ing, is not thereby thoroughly armed for the battle of life. Pushed by law through an educational mill, from which he emerges with

untrained senses, no rooted principles, nothing, in short, but a bare, elementary knowledge of letters and figures, he is ripe for the evils, and unreceptive to the good, of education. His reading will be but of corruption, his writing, iniquity, and his figuring, calculations of the unjust ratio between his earnings and the incomes of "aristocrats."

It is a question whether, other things being equal, a totally illiterate peasantry is not less dangerous to itself and to the community than one furnished with the edge-tools of half-knowledge, with the proper use of which it is wholly unacquainted. Not for one moment would I advocate illiteracy. In no degree would I urge the modification of laws compelling education. The evils of mal-education, great as they are,—perhaps greater for the moment than those of illiteracy,—can be overcome in one generation. Those of non-education can be eradicated only after centuries. The brain of the offspring of one brought to criminality through perverted knowledge is, by the inheritance of that very mental power, just so much higher in the intellectual scale, and can, if it be taken early and trained rightly, be turned, in the majority of cases, entirely away from its inherited tendencies towards evil, and can, in consequence of its higher potentiality, be carried beyond the danger-line of half-knowledge into the light of true and ambitious intellectuality.

The children of criminals (taking crime in its widest sense) and of the morally blunted, claim, of course, the first and most active attention of the State, since they and their offspring are an immediate menace to social progress, and neglect of them entails, almost certainly, their moral ruin. The Americans have been singularly indifferent to the danger from this class. They have trusted too much, perhaps, in the power of nature, through disease and neglect, to keep down the numbers of this menacing body. While making elaborate and approximately perfect provision for the physically deformed, the insane, the blind, the idiotic, the State has, in great measure, overlooked the larger needs of the morally deformed, and has ignored the infinitely more serious consequences threatening the body politic from moral, as compared with physical, degeneration. The United States, indeed, is full of prisons, reformatories, and almshouses, in which to place its malefactors against society and themselves; but, while such institutions are and always will be a necessity, their number would be vastly diminished and their character would be greatly improved, did the State but expend upon

infants with moral taints some of the millions now devoted to the care of the same children grown to manhood, and no longer tainted, but utterly corrupt.

The second, and almost equally serious, claim upon the thought and bounty of the tax-paying public is that of the so-called working class, that of the children of parents whose aims for their offspring are good; who would do much for them, were they but able; with whom, however, the question of daily bread is all-absorbing; with whom the provision of food for the body is a call so urgent that the cry for mental sustenance must be neglected. This class, from which the majority of those receiving the common education are drawn, is, in itself, the bone and sinew of the community, constituting its chief strength; but so near is it, through bonds of poverty, to the dangerous class, so short and easy is the step from ambitious want to idle, and consequently vicious, poverty, that with the education of the children of this population is needed the greatest care, the closest supervision, lest enforced neglect on the part of the parents result in the ruin of the child. Steam, working faithfully and ceaselessly for man, needs but to be turned a hair's breadth from its right path to prove his destroyer. In the luxury of abundant natural resources, we have ruthlessly sucked out the richness from our virgin soil; we have wantonly destroyed our primeval forests: no less ignorantly have we abused our immense human labor-power, allowing it to go to waste and destruction. Tornado and famine follow the destruction of physical advantages; anarchy and crime walk in the footsteps of waste of human power.

Medical and surgical skill is now so great that almost any physical malformation, be it but attacked in season, may be cured; almost any defect of sense may be overcome. Patience, persistency, and skill alone are needful. In no less degree is it possible to train and bend the moral obliquities of infancy, the mental malformations due to inheritance, into the straight and supple perfection of right ideas, pure instincts, and elevating tendencies. At least, it is possible to approximate such perfection, and, by continued application of right teaching to successive generations, to raise the moral cripple, in his descendants, to the level of the sound and healthy man.

Does our educational system, as a whole, do this? Except where an enthusiastic and self-sacrificing teacher far exceeds the bounds of simple duty, and swerves, perhaps, from the course of work

laid down, is anything implied in the ordinary public-school curriculum more than the barest giving of instruction, using this word in its narrowest and dryest sense? Does compulsory attendance for five hours a day upon exercises monotonous and often unintelligible, made doubly distasteful by a continued insistence and emphasis upon the coercion of it,—does this tend to the elevation of a child whose inherent tendencies are downward, and whose surroundings serve only to exaggerate those tendencies? Or does it serve to supply the training which overworked and tired parents, however desirous of doing so, cannot give? As a rule, such education has no closer relation to the child's growth, constitutes no more intimate a part of his scheme of life, than does the whipping which he accepts as inevitable, but the escaping of which, by any deceit whatever, constitutes its only interest. The poverty, the squalor, the vice surrounding him, are his life; these impress themselves upon him until their seal is branded like the mark of Cain. The degradation of his environment is a real, ever-present fact. The atmosphere of the school-room is but a nightmare, a something outside his actual existence, escape from which is to be speedy and complete. His five hours of confinement and of hateful task are made endurable only by the prospect of their ultimate cessation, when he may return to the street, with its congenial pleasures. To be sure, something is learned; upon issuing from the school the child is no longer rated as an "illiterate minor"; but what else has he gained? He has been taught neither to think nor to reason, neither to work nor to study. I am speaking now only of the average school, where the hack-work of routine is done by a teacher having little enthusiasm and less preparation for his duties; where a low order of intelligence is put in authority over still lower minds, undertaking to raise them to its level, much as one would contract to saw a cord of wood. And this is necessarily so, under the present system. The salaries offered to teachers in the elementary schools are entirely disproportionate to the amount and kind of work which should be required in return. Reward and promotion for faithfulness are slow and uncertain. The ultimate result of years of performance of duty, be it well or indifferently done, is simply dismissal, with no palliation except "resolutions" and, perhaps, a small gratuity. Finally, public sentiment, until recently, has asked for nothing more than a perfunctory performance of teaching work.

To bring the public-school training, then, to some measure of what

it should be, from the stand-point both of urgent public policy and of a fair return for the money levied by taxation for its support, three things are necessary: First, fully to arouse the public mind to a sense of the proper general methods of teaching; second, to increase the number and efficiency of the normal schools, to the end that all teachers shall, of necessity, have received a normal-school training; and, third, to offer such salaries, and such pensions, or other rewards of long-continued, faithful performance of duty, that there shall be ample inducement for the best men and best women to go into this branch of the public service, and to expend therein their highest thought and effort. None of my propositions is new; I have no startling and radical changes to propose. I ask only for common-sense in the matter of child-rearing,—the common-sense distinguishing American business methods, and, with reservations, American political systems, but sadly lacking in questions of training and education. No scheme of instruction, however, can be launched perfected. Years of trial, of very patient and persevering trial, must precede any decision, and never ought any rigid system of teaching to be, under any circumstances, adopted. Not only must general methods be the result of years of experiment, but they must be widely differentiated, to suit the varying conditions—peculiarly divergent within the enormous area of the United States—of climate, and of physical and political circumstances. I assert, only, that in the public-school system, as generally understood and practised, there are two main defects and consequent trains of evils, viz., those incident to the system of grading, and those arising from the fact that public education begins too late in the child's life, and is carried too far towards young manhood and womanhood.

Grading is, of course, largely actuated by considerations of convenience and economy; it arose also, perhaps, as a part of the democratic idea. It is difficult to assert without shock that in America there are, and of right should be, classes and class-distinctions. We are fond of pointing with pride to the school-house sheltering side by side, within its hospitable walls, the children of millionaires and of the poorest laborers. We like to prove the glowing first clause of the Declaration of Independence, by putting the child of the learned and refined professional man, with centuries of cultivation and erudition behind him, through exactly the same mental training as is given to the son of the meanest day-laborer, illiterate himself, and with an ancestry lost in mental darkness.

But is the bright, sensitive mind of the former improved by the obligation of keeping pace with the painful apprehension of the latter, and is the dull, commonplace mind of the low-born boy quickened, in any degree, by yoke-fellowship with the inherently cultivated understanding of his more fortunate schoolmate? It seems to me decidedly not, and I would strongly urge the grading of schools, not upon scales of ranks, of merits and demerits, much less upon distinctions of caste, but upon the broad and firm lines of brain power,—lines which any teacher of experience can readily trace after a short acquaintance with his pupils.

The second question, that of the limits of school age, is, it seems to me, far more vital, and contains within it many of the weightiest social problems. As the State cannot regulate marriage and procreation, further than to provide penalties for social crimes, it must strive to avert, so far as is possible, the evils consequent upon this limitation, by educating, in such manner as seems most proper, the children of those unfitted or indisposed to assume that duty themselves. It should, therefore, take charge of the children of such parents almost literally from the cradle. More good can be accomplished, or, rather, more harm can be averted, in the years between the ages of two or three and eight, than during any subsequent period in a child's life. Common-sense, as well as the most superficial experience with children, shows this to be true. Therefore should the State, through its townships, establish kindergartens, or day-nurseries, in all school-districts where the conditions are such that any number of mothers must go out to work or service; and should compel the attendance thereupon of the children over two years of age of all parents prevented by wage-earning from giving them proper care and supervision, as well as of all those incompetent, through viciousness or habitual drunkenness, to give right training. In these day-nurseries the children should be kept during the whole extent of the working-hours of the mother or other guardian. They should be carried to and from the school by the parent or some other equally competent person; and, in view of the relief from other care, the strictest neatness and cleanliness should be insisted upon. During the day, a hot, nutritious meal should be served to the children; but for this the parents should pay in such measure as they are able. In this connection, of course, the city and private charities should work in harmony with the school, aiding its officers in deciding doubtful cases, and furnishing, when

necessary and proper, clothing to the destitute and medical attention to the diseased and deformed, as well as defraying the expense of the food, when, upon rigid investigation, it is found that the parents or other natural guardians are unable to pay for it.

The chief object of this kindergarten would be, of course, to keep children out of the streets, to take them from their vile or squalid surroundings, and to keep them properly occupied and amused. At the same time, incalculable good could be done in the way of training infants to habits of cleanliness, order, neatness, and punctuality. The healthful atmosphere alone would do much towards raising them from the moral depths into which they are born, and, through instruction in play-housekeeping, and in such manual labor as is suited to their age, a good influence could not fail to be exerted upon the homes to which they return at night, full of what they have seen and done during the day. In short, for the idleness and filth of the gutter would be substituted the clean, sweet atmosphere of the kindergarten; for the obscenity and profanity of the streets would be substituted the helpful play and work, the healthful influence and training, of the school-room; for the neglect and possible ill-usage of low and incompetent parents would be substituted the patient wisdom, the careful guidance, of the trained teacher. To be sure, the child is not taken away completely from his hurtful environment; but, by interesting him in his work, by leading him gently to the consideration and knowledge of higher and better things, the school will become preëminent in his thoughts; the night of home will be but the interlude between the first and chief interests of the daily training. The plastic mind and nature of the developing child, moulded by such influences, cannot but be better formed.

To reach its perfection, this system requires teachers fitted by nature and by training to overcome the difficulties of the work; sunny, well-ventilated, properly-heated school-rooms; and large, inclosed yards, partly covered and protected for rainy and winter weather, and partly grassed and planted for summer play; for this school must have no vacation; indeed, for obvious reasons, it is more necessary in hot than in cold weather.

Granting, however, the expediency of such schools, there enters into the argument the important item of expense. The cost of maintaining such schools would undoubtedly be large, and the American tax-payer is already exceedingly generous in the matter

of education. It might be argued, and, perhaps, proved, that the ultimate gain to the State, in the diminution of the number of criminals and paupers, would more than compensate for the added expenditure; but it is difficult to justify present payments by future benefits: so there must be found some means of reducing other school expenditures to meet this added burden. To this end, I suggest the abolition of the freedom of the high-schools. Curtailment in the matter of higher education will not only permit of the support of this primary and all-important training, but it will send out into active work many boys and girls who now take the high-school course through no special fondness for study, no desire for improvement, but because it is gratuitous, and who obtain therein a quasi-knowledge that persuades them of their superiority over young men and women who have spent the same years in work, and that unfits them for the vocations to which their mental capacity is alone equal. Confine the high-school to its proper uses,—that of furnishing higher cultivation to those mentally prepared or pecuniarily able to profit by it, and that of leading up to collegiate and professional work,—and expend the millions necessary to its maintenance upon the unfortunate children who have now no refuge, during the most susceptible years of their lives, from the adverse conditions surrounding them; and we shall have, without curtailing in any degree the opportunities of those really hungry for higher education, a race of boys and girls sounder in body and healthier in mind than has been, or ever will be, possible under the limitations of our present school system.

JAMES P. MUNROE.

MATTHEW ARNOLD AS AN ENGLISH WRITER.

WHATEVER independent conclusions any one may have reached as to the writings and style of Matthew Arnold, it must be conceded that he is a commanding presence in English Letters. A poet of no inferior mould; a painstaking observer of the methods of modern education; a literary critic of acknowledged ability, and a writer of English prose as prominent, at present, as any of his English or American contemporaries, his work as an author demands examination, and will well repay any conscientious study that may be given it. In the discussion before us, it is with Mr. Arnold exclusively as a prose writer that we have to do, while, within the province of prose itself, we are to confine attention to the question of style, as distinct from any related question of personal character or opinion. It is not with our author's religious views as sound or unsound; nor with his views of education, politics, and social economy, that we are to deal; but with Mr. Arnold the man of letters. As far as the different divisions of his prose are concerned, they may be said to be theological, as seen in *St. Paul and Protestantism*, *God and the Bible*, *Literature and Dogma*, *Last Essays on the Church and Religion;* educational, as seen in *Schools and Universities of the Continent*, *Higher Schools and Universities in Germany*, *Popular Education in France;* literary, as seen in *Essays in Criticism*, *Culture and Anarchy*, *Study of Celtic Literature*, and *Addresses in America.* These various discussions, shorter or longer, make up, with slight exceptions, the body of his published prose, and afford us an inviting field for the special survey of his work as a writer.

We note, at the outset, its classical character. The term classical, in this connection, may be used either in its more specific, technical sense, or in its more enlarged and current sense. If by it we mean the style of the old pagan authors in the best days of Greek and Roman letters, the word is eminently applicable to Mr. Arnold's writings. Most especially, it applies, in his case, to Grecian letters. In such an essay as *Literature and Science*, we can clearly see the profound attachment of the author to anything Athenian,

to the Attic order of expression, and to this, mainly, because of its beauty and grace. It has that "high symmetry" of form and method to which all later nations, as he argues, can hope but to approximate. That "instinct for beauty" which is common to the race will not only hold, as he affirms, the Greek language and literature in its historic place of prominence among liberal studies, but will make the imitation of its models an essential study with every patron of humane letters and verbal expression. It is a pleasing incident to note, that an edition of *Thucydides* by Dr. Thomas Arnold evinces this same devotedness to the Greek, and thereby connects the scholarly instincts of the son with those of the father. Mr. Arnold thus insists in referring himself and his readers to the authors of antiquity. He is content to apply to prose what he has so emphatically applied to poetry, as he says: "In the sincere endeavor to learn and practise what is sound and true in poetical art, I seemed to myself to find the only sure guidance among the ancients." So conspicuous is this element of ancientness in his prose style, that it is only the reader of classical training and tastes who can best appreciate its meaning. If we accept the word classical in its wider sense of standard, it is still, to a good degree, applicable to the prose before us. In his essay on *The Literary Influence of Academies*, the author himself constantly employs the word in this generally-understood sense, of that which is idiomatic and unprovincial. In commenting on the style of Bossuet, he gives us, in one of his unique phrases, the clearest idea of classical prose as "the prose of the centre." It is from this point of view that he rebukes Burke and other English essayists, in that they too often depart from the "centre," from what might be called metropolitan English. Their style is suburban, and, to this degree, out of harmony with the governing spirit of the time. Where others fail, in this respect, Mr. Arnold substantially succeeds, and may be said to write an order of English which, with all its deference to pagan models, is the accepted English of modern England. In each of these senses, therefore, the style before us is classical. It is, in a word, a literary style, as distinct from being philosophic or scientific or even local. No English author of note, now living, is more distinctly a *littérateur* than was Mr. Arnold; more literary in his instincts, methods, habits, and aims. He was an author by profession and by preference. We have spoken of his essays as theological, educational, and literary. Such a classification is for convenience only. All his writings are

literary more than they are anything else, and leave upon the reader the impression of the author's unqualified devotion to this particular type of expression.

If we inquire more particularly as to the chief elements of style included in the term classical, we may indicate them as clearness and finish. In the well-understood use of words, Mr. Arnold may be called a clear writer; substantially so in the conception of his ideas and in their communication to others. Every reader of his prose will recall the emphatic manner in which he gives to this quality the first place, as it deserves, in all literary work. He agreed with the old Welshman, Gerald de Barri, "that it is better to be dumb than not to be understood." He wrote all his books, as he wrote *Literature and Dogma*, for a "better apprehension" of the subject in hand. He was constantly insisting on "lucidity," and thoroughly believed in it as a "character of perfection" in authorship. When it is said that Mr. Arnold is a clear writer, this is not to say that he is clear in the same sense in which all other intelligible writers are clear, or that he is similarly clear on all subjects. With rare exceptions, however, he is practically intelligible on subjects capable of being made so, and to intelligent minds disposed to give to his writings a fair degree of thoughtful attention. When Mr. Arnold speaks of "the stream of tendency;" of "the Eternal, not ourselves, that makes for righteousness;" of "righteousness as salvation verifiably;" of the "criticism of life;" and of conduct as "three-fourths of life," we are simply to hold our objections in abeyance until he "comes to himself" and makes us understand his meaning, because he understands it himself. In such vague deliverances as these, we must remember that Mr. Arnold is not at his best, or even at his average of clearness as a writer. So true is this, that he is often seen to pass to the opposite extreme of over-clearness, to an undue repetition of idea and word, until the reader's patience is wearied and his intelligence insulted. Few of our author's admirers have failed to note this blemish, and deplore it. In all this, Mr. Arnold is consistent, and aims thereby to apply a principle which he approvingly quotes from Joubert: "It is by means of familiar words that style takes hold of the reader." Familiar words are not, however, repetitious. The logical elaboration of an idea is not, necessarily, its frequent re-statement. If we examine such as essay as *Culture and Anarchy* or *Literature and Science*, with this particular error in mind, surprise will grow into repugnance at the injudicious recurrence of such

phrases as "Sweetness and Light;" "the sense in us for conduct;" "the sense in us for beauty."

The "long sweep" which the author, in his essay on *Numbers*, confesses he has taken in arriving at the point, is a sweep of fifty-six pages, in an article of seventy-one. Clear, beyond a question, this style is, but a little more of that "pregnant conciseness" for which he justly praised Milton, would have been in place, and made a style already intelligible still more decidedly so. As to the author's style in the line of classical finish, scarcely too much of praise can be said. We come in contact here with the very essence of Mr. Arnold's personality,—his supreme devotion to literary form as an art, to the artistic or æsthetic side of authorship. Here, again, we find the explanation of his love of Greek letters. He loves them because they are, to his mind, the best human embodiment of the beautiful in language. For this reason, if for no other, he is at home in Athens and with Plato. Hence, his preference of Hellenism to Hebraism; of beauty to sublimity; of sentiment to action. The real Renaissance is to him but the reproduction of this old Attic art; of that "genius and instinct for style" which he finds among the classic authors. Happily for the author, his antecedents and surroundings strongly contributed to this ruling principle. It was a part of his inheritance from his more distinguished father. His training at Rugby and Winchester and Oxford deepened and enlarged it. As professor of poetry at Oxford, he had studied and explained the governing laws of beauty; as a writer of poetry, he had illustrated and applied them; while, in the more didactic department of prose discourse, he ever evinced the presence of this "sense of beauty," and justified the appellation of "the apostle of culture." This he defines to be "a study and pursuit of perfection"; a "passion for perfection"; the final aim of the expression of thought. In choice of word, in structure of phrase and sentence, in unity and symmetry of outline, and in the general rhetorical procedure of his work, this desire to reach the most consummate excellence of form is a dominant one. If the style is classically clear, it is, even more so, classically finished, and thus made attractive to the most fastidious taste. In this passionate devotion to the structural side of style, there is a danger lurking, and a danger, we are bound to add, which Mr. Arnold has not always escaped. There is here, at times, an over-finish, a finish for its own sake.

Mainly and generally, the style is clear and finished, and, in this sense, classical—a type of prose, partly the result of his constant

communion with Greek and French authors; partly the result of English training; but mainly the result of that inborn "passion for perfection" which goes far to commend to the judgment and taste of cultured readers whatever he was pleased to pen.

We have spoken of Mr. Arnold as, above all else, an exponent of literary style. His style may also justly be termed critical and controversial. All his essays might well be called "Essays in Criticism." In his excellent paper on *The Function of Criticism*, he gives us the general literary principles which, as he conceived them, lie at the basis of all literary judgment, and is willing, as an author, to be tested by them. Criticism he defines to be "a disinterested endeavor to learn and propagate the best that is known and thought in the world." That with which the literary censor has specially to do, is the "criticism of life." If we ask what, in Mr. Arnold's view, the chief conditions of successful criticism are, we find them to consist mainly in knowledge and insight. In addition to a large acquaintance with the comprehensive province of letters, there must be that delicacy of literary perception which is above all formal statute, though not unfriendly to it, and which fulfils, in the critic's personality, the practical function of intuitive judgment. No criticism, he would teach us, is worthy of the name, in which instinct is not greater than logical process; in which quickness of apprehension is not greater than mere acquisition, and where any decision is not known to be valid chiefly because it is seen and felt to be such. The critic, as he adds, is he who "has the faculty of judging with all the powers of his mind and soul at work together." He is the man in his mental and moral entirety absorbed, for the time, in the examination of authorship. Hence, it is that Mr. Arnold has done an invaluable work in minimizing the distance between creation and criticism in literature. Conceding, as he must have done, that the faculty of judging is of lower rank than the purely productive power, he still insists upon magnifying above its present status the judicial function. He sharply rebukes his favorite Wordsworth for taking so low a view of the critical art; illustrates the principle he is defending by a reference to Goethe, and is especially severe against that mercenary view of criticism by which it is reduced to the level of the merely practical. Not only is it, in Mr. Arnold's opinion, a high intellectual art, but it is based, also, on ethical principles and applied to ethical ends. Its purpose is "to see the object really as it is." It

is to be prosecuted in that "justness of spirit" of which he so often speaks as essential to men of letters. We have spoken of literary insight as seen in Mr. Arnold's critical style. This is most apparent by the way in which he subordinates facts to principles, and carefully elaborates these principles for the benefit of his readers. As he tells us, "Fineness and delicacy of perception to deal with the facts is the principal thing." Hence we find, in the prose before us, definite literary *principia* for the guidance of the novice. They read, by way of specimen, as follows: "The grand power of poetry is its interpretative power." "To ascertain the master current in the literature of an epoch is one of the critic's highest functions." "The thing to know of a writer is, where he is all himself and his best self; where he gives us what no other man gives us." Such are a few of these critical canons; passages that reveal genuine literary sagacity, and which, if applied to criticism in general, would exalt it at once to a scientific pursuit, worthy of the best endeavor of gifted men. Reference has been made to the style in question as controversial. All criticism must be, to some extent, of this polemic character. This is not to say, however, that it is censorious. Though our author, as we shall see, has his faults as a critic, they are not here. We must accredit him with what he claims, "a disinterested endeavor," and confess that he brings conscience, as well as culture, to his work. There is manifest in his style a love of argument, a growing fondness, perhaps, for discussion, and yet very rarely present for any other reason than for ingenuous difference of opinion, and to defend what he conceives to be a radical literary law. The nature of the topics with which the author has dealt, the men and institutions with which he has been conversant, the age in which he has lived, made it impossible that he could have been critical without being controversial. That his critical style has not been more acrid than it has been, is largely due to the high ideal that he has always had of his art, and partly due to that scholarly equanimity of temper which is his, alike by constitution and training.

Thus much in praise of Mr. Arnold's critical style, and we turn, perforce, to what we must regard as his fundamental fault—its dogmatic spirit. Where this does not lead him into open contradictions, it gives to his writing a temper quite out of keeping with his clearly-pronounced views. Though this dogmatism is apparent in all his prose, it is least so in that which is educational; most so, in that which is theological; while far too conspicious in that which is mainly

literary. No man has opposed the dogmatic tone more than he, and yet he is, here, among the chief of sinners. The author of *Literature and Dogma* knew what was meant by each of these terms. We are speaking now of the inner spirit of style, and not at all of the subject-matter as expressed in opinion or belief. Independence of judgment is one thing; bold independence of the judgment of others is a different and a dangerous thing. Even a genius in criticism must take account of the conclusions of others, and, at times, wait upon their word. What may be called the indifferent tone of Mr. Arnold's critical style is in keeping with this dogmatism, if not, indeed, a part of it. The critic is thoroughly satisfied with himself. One of his favorite words is, Sweetness. Who would be so daring as to charge our author with its manifestation! What he calls "urbanity" is but another name for cautious reserve, an unsympathetic reticence which often becomes cynical. We are not sure but that this aristocratic manner was more and more apparent in Mr. Arnold, and never more pronounced than in his latest utterances. Despite his well-meaning theories, the appellation given him of an "æsthetic reformer" is not quite undeserved. In the face of his avowed devotion to the middle classes, his references to their "hardness and vulgarity and grotesque illusions" is not the best way to conciliate the Philistines. Full of schemes for the people's good, the mere mention of the name of John Bright, the people's practical friend, was enough to stir within him the "scorn of scorn," and drive his pen to the verge of personality. A son of Oxford, he was devoted to its "faith and traditions," and preferred to appear as a representative of the "Remnant," the acknowledged apostle of classical restraint. Criticism has, at its best, quite enough of this unfeeling element in it, this urban indifference to the outside. To our own mind, the one most repellant feature of this distinguished writer is this imperial pompousness, this air of self-assertion, which amounts, at times, to nothing short of a literary strut. The world is too old and too wise for such posing as this, and it is well for all to know it. It is the most natural thing imaginable for a critical style to become self-assertive, and yet the intelligent classes are tired of it, and are looking for more humility at the seat of judgment. Mr. Arnold is regarded by some as an erratic guide in criticism. The opinion is not without basis, in so far as the error in question is present. In his several addresses recently delivered in America, we note most suggestive examples of this parade of parts—this literary *hauteur*. The dogmatic temper

apart, however, Mr. Arnold's prose writings exhibit the better features of the critical style. They are the product of a man of large literary acquisition, of high classical taste, of a marked degree of literary acumen, and of ingenuous literary motive, and must take their place among the representative criticisms of the time.

To our mind, one of the chief characteristics of a good book and a good style is, that it is suggestive and stimulating, that it has in it intellectual vitality, a deep under-current of thought and life far below all that is visible, and giving to what we term expression its vivifying and effective force. Mr. Stedman speaks of Mr. Arnold as a "poet of the intellect." The appellation is in place relative to his prose. He generally gives us something that has cost him thought, and which is fitted thereby to awaken thought within us. How could a son of Dr. Thomas Arnold have failed to exhibit a masculine vigor of mind? There is in the style a kind of Gothic robustness, through the influence of which it impresses itself upon the reader, and infuses into his being something of this same Teutonic spirit. Mr. Arnold had been, from his earliest intellectual life, an observer and inquirer, a reader and student and thinker. He had what he himself would call "a scientific passion" for knowledge and for its communication to others. We have referred to a division of his prose works as educational. It is just to affirm that his style throughout has this educational and educating quality; that didactic character for which he so admired the poetry of Wordsworth. In the words of Montesquieu, it seeks "to render an intelligent being still more intelligent," and, in the truly Baconian spirit, to add somewhat to the sum of human truth. Our author, in commenting on the character of Burke, remarks "that he was so great because he brought thought to bear on politics." It is one of the most helpful services rendered by Mr. Arnold that he has brought thought to bear on literature, lifting it from the low plane on which the French school of his day had placed it, and coördinating it with all the invigorating branches of mental life. "Let men say what they please," he writes, "if what they please to say is worth saying." He would endorse the sentiment of George Eliot in *Theophrastus Such:* "Blessed is the man who, having nothing to say, abstains from giving us wordy evidence of the fact." Behind the word, as he holds, is the idea; behind the style is the subject-matter, and nothing is gained by any writer in substituting mere vocabulary for

sense. The style is thus instructive and incitive. It often implies more than it fully unfolds, and serves to quicken within the reader a genuine literary impulse.

No one can read the prose of Mr. Arnold with carefulness and sympathetic attention, without becoming a wiser man, and without having awakened within him a desire to become even wiser still, along the lines of inquiry opened up before him by the author. His style has thus always been attractive to the intelligent classes of every community, to the well-bred and well-read. Among university and college men, Mr. Arnold has always found devoted admirers; not so much because he has written largely on university topics, but because he has written on most topics in the university manner. It is this intellectual element of style which, after all, is its distinctive element, on the basis of which the prose we are examining may safely be commended to the thoughtful young men of the land. It will be an auspicious omen in our literary history, and of untold advantage to our college men, when such an order of reading as this will quite displace the miscellaneous literature of the hour, and those books be most eagerly sought which are the fullest of mental content. We are speaking exclusively of our author's style, and not of his individual beliefs, when we thus emphasize the excellence of his prose as a vigorous protest against all that is superficial. Few of us cannot but regret that Mr. Arnold has not confined himself more closely to strictly literary themes, of which he is an accredited master, and has essayed so frequently to play the part of a doctrinal disputant in regions of inquiry where, in thought and style, he has appeared at his worst. Though Principal Fairbairn and others have called attention to the vogue into which Mr. Arnold's theological writings have come, we cannot but rejoice that his *Last Essays on the Church and Religion* were, indeed, the last on such a line of topics, and that his attention was more discreetly directed to essays on criticism and culture. Within his proper sphere, he is unique and able, so as to have become, at the time of his premature death, a conspicuous exponent of modern thought as expressed in modern literature.

In speaking thus of our author's legitimate province as a thinker and writer, we are led to mark what we must regard as the mental narrowness of his outlook. Mr. Stedman has called our attention to the "limitations" of Mr. Arnold's poetic power, his want of "lightness of touch" and of "range of affections." In the study of his

prose, we may consistently speak of the limitation of his intellectual range. His reach of mind, at the farthest, was restricted. In his vision of truth, at the longest, he was somewhat near-sighted and failed to cover that spacious area of inquiry which it is the prerogative of genius to compass. We shall probably encounter, at this point, the decided opposition of many of our readers, or, at least, be told that, if the mental breadth of our author's style is an open question at all, he must have the benefit of the doubt. We hold, however, to the assertion made, and hold it as fully accordant with all that has been said by way of praise as to the clearness, finish, critical perception, and general intellectual suggestiveness of his style. These are all possible features apart from great breadth of mental vision, while the over-clearness and over-culture and dogmatic assertion to which we have referred, are proof in point of this very limitation of faculty.

Mr. Arnold's style is not, in the fullest sense of the words, philosophic, far-reaching, and catholic. Though not superficial, it is not profound; and while contributing, as far as it goes, to genuine mental impulse, it has not that "mental stretch" in it which marks the seer. As already stated, Mr. Arnold was a man of letters, a student of style, a literary critic. He has said, perhaps, more than he meant to say, when he wrote in *Literature and Dogma:* "For the good of letters is that they require no extraordinary acuteness, such as is required to handle the theory of causation, and letters, therefore, meet in us a greater want than does logic." True or false, this is the author's view of the mental requisition of letters as a branch of liberal learning, and is the view which his prose illustrates. The central word of his vocabulary is culture, and though he defines it to be "an harmonious expansion of all the powers," it is strikingly apparent that the expansion is but partial. In this respect, at least, the great Master of Rugby is his superior, in that wide-eyed view of thought and life that takes in everything within the visible horizon, and even peers beyond it. Here, as we believe, lies the main explanation of the fact that Mr. Arnold, in his prose, is an essayist, and nothing more. Whatever the particular form in which his writings are published, their original form was that of the essay or dissertation, as distinct from the book proper, with its exhaustive discussion of the subject in hand. Conceding to the essay all that has historically been claimed for it, or that can legitimately be given it, it is not the book proper, any more than one of Milton's sonnets is to be

classified as a lyric with "Comus," or than an heroic ode, such as "Alexander's Feast," is an epic. This is not mainly because the one is briefer than the other, but because they differ in mental grasp and procedure, as also in spirit and purpose. Burns wrote as genuine poetry as was ever written by any son of song. He had not the poetic breadth, however, to construct an epic. Wordsworth, intellectual as he was, had not this epic faculty. Lord Bacon was an essayist, but he was transcendently more. Addison, in prose, was an essayist only, and the difference in the mental girth of these two writers will mark the difference between range and restriction. The style of Mr. Arnold's prose is intellectual, but not in the Baconian sense; while, even within the limited province of the essay itself, such a writer as De Quincey is his undoubted superior. Though his style does not reveal a man of one idea, it does reveal a man of a comparatively limited number of ideas, which, at times, he reiterates, as he does his words, slightly to our distaste. The process of condensation applied with "executive severity" to his writings would materially reduce their volume and enhance their value. All this conceded, we repeat our assertion as to the general stimulus of his style, within the range of reflection and observation that he may be said to occupy. When fully at home with the subject in hand, what he knows, he knows clearly; what he writes, he writes in classical English, and the reading is mentally salutary. A genius neither in verse nor prose, he has yet, as Mr. Stedman intimates, accomplished, in some of his verse, the substantial results of genius, and has often, we may add, accomplished them in prose.

We are now brought to what may be regarded as the most interesting feature of the style before us—its distinctive moral gravity. Critics of his poetry have quite agreed in placing him in "the contemplative group" of poets, in that moralistic school of writers which is so conspicuous in English letters. Our author himself tells us that by authorship "the moral fibre must be braced," and holds it as essential to all literary criticism that the ethical element must be acknowledged. Attention has been called to the æsthetic beauty of Mr. Arnold's prose, especially as it is dependent on a careful study of Greek models. This literary sedateness, however, is Roman in its type, a kind of Senecan sobriety of demeanor which is in fullest keeping with the author's personality. Even in his poetry, we mark the prevalence of the graver themes, as *Balder Dead* and *Thyrsis*, while the explanation of his comparative failure in the

treatment of lighter topics is found in this adaptation of his mind to the more serious aspects of truth. There is in Matthew Arnold's authorship but little, if any, light literature. That he should have attempted the production of a romance is quite unthinkable. He quotes with fervent approbation the pungent words of Joubert as to "the monstrosities of fiction"—that "they have no place in literature." "They who produce them are not really men of letters." His distinctively theological essays are an evidence of this subjective habit of mind. He has a kind of "devout energy" that leads him into the region of religious inquiry. Though his prose is not without satire, the satire itself is of the more serious order, after the manner of Juvenal rather than that of Swift. How notable the absence of wit and humor, as they appear in Addison and Lamb! How direct and literal the phraseology! How devoid of playful pleasantry, as it soberly proceeds to unfold its meaning toward a definite result! As in his verse, when the dramatic is attempted, it is on the side of the tragic rather than the comic, so in his prose, this magisterial sedateness is the dominant spirit, and serves to exclude the trivial and belittling. Mr. Arnold has called the style of Homer "eminently noble." There is this quality of Homeric nobleness in his own style; a kind of classical dignity of address that gives it an attractiveness to every reflective reader. Partly, a product of inherited character, partly, the result of personal temperament, and, partly, the expression of culture, it must receive a valid place in any proper estimate of his style. If we inquire as to the special type of this literary gravity, we find it to be ethical rather than religious, Hellenic rather than Hebraic. It is best described in the author's own language, as "intellectual seriousness." If we compare, at this point, the father and the son, we clearly see the difference between the deep religious spirit of the one and the ethical propriety of the other. It is the difference between piety proper and external moral decorum; between Milton and Macaulay. The radical, Biblical sense of the word spiritual, as used by Thomas Arnold, is gradually modified by the son until we reach what is called æsthetic symmetry of character, a faculty for discerning the true, the beautiful, and the good, wherever present. To resist the devil, meant with the father what it meant with Paul and Bunyan. With the son it meant the opposition of the soul to all degrading tendencies, the enthronement of Beauty over the Beast. In a word, Mr. Arnold's style is serious in the sense of being ethically correct and earnest, and this is all.

Just here we are prepared to note what we are obliged to call the despondent tone of Mr. Arnold's style. He is, in no true sense, a cheerful, hearty, whole-souled English writer, as Scott and Thackeray and Christopher North may be said to be. The cast of the prose is Carlylean, and strongly impressed with the influence of Gœthe. Students of Mr. Arnold's poetry must be well aware of this undertone of sadness that runs like a sombre current below the visible level of his verse. Herein is one of those limitations of his poetic genius, whereby the spontaneity of his style is impaired, and the head waits not upon the heart. We cannot, therefore, expect to find in his poems free flexibility of movement, blitheness and buoyancy of spirit, and the impulse of deep emotion, in that the nature from which such poetic fruits are "furnished forth" is wanting. So is it in his prose. Seriousness is too often seen to give place to sadness, and to a sadness which is nothing less than Byronic and oppressive. Of the presence and the pressure of this weight upon him, Mr. Arnold himself is not always aware. There is a something in the sentence and the line—he scarcely knows what—that binds it to the earth and prevents its free excursion heavenward. In this profitless effort to lift the world from its lower tendencies by culture only; in this pursuit of perfection through imperfect agencies; in this almost cruel restriction of the spirit within the circle of the humanities; in this well-meant but unwise attempt to eliminate the supernatural from the problem of life,—in this, indeed, we have the fact of sadness and its sufficient explanation. The "sick fatigue and languid doubt," which the author himself deplores, will never give place to that "sweet calm" of mind that he so craves, until the established relation of things is accepted, and Christianity takes rank above culture. This feature apart, the prose is marked by a solid and impressive earnestness which never tolerates the trifling, and is an order of prose especially timely in an age inclined so strongly as this to the frivolous in authorship. In this respect, if not so in others, Mr. Arnold's style is Baconian and Miltonic, never descending to the plane of the charlatan for the sake of effect, but ever keeping aloft on the high table-land of thought and motive, among the sober-minded contributors to the cause of good letters.

If asked, as we close, what is the most useful service that Mr. Arnold has rendered, in his style, to modern England and America, we answer: the wide diffusion of the literary spirit, the emphasis of literature as a most important department of education and an

essential factor in all national progress. This result he has accomplished, in part, by his unwearied exaltation of the mental above the merely material, and, in part, by his earnest endeavor to stimulate the people to the attainment of that culture which to him is the crowning principle of all literature and life. Nothing is more needed among the English-speaking peoples of to-day than the free circulation of this literary life. Despite such high literary antecedents and traditions, and the goodly number of English authors steadily at work along the old literary lines, so strong is the "stream of tendency" in the direction of commercialism, that special effort is needed to prevent its influx even into the centres of intellectual culture. This tendency is even more marked in what Mr. Emerson has called "this great, intelligent, sensual, and avaricious America." If we inquire further into the extent and probable permanence of Mr. Arnold's influence as a prose-writer, we must answer, first of all, that he cannot be consistently called a popular English essayist. There is not enough of the common or colloquial element in the style to give it currency among the great body of what he terms the middle class. That extreme æstheticism to which we have referred, as also his dogmatic independence and indifference of manner, would serve to narrow the circle of appreciative readers, while, even among the higher classes themselves, our author is read by many who read only to dissent. If we compare his essays, in this respect, with those of Lamb and Macaulay, the difference is marked in favor of the latter, and the difference is one between restricted and general circulation.

Mr. Arnold cannot be said to have formed a school, either in prose or verse. Whatever his constituency may be, they do not stand related to him as an organic body to an acknowledged leader, accepting his literary dicta without question, and devoting their energies to the dissemination of his teachings. Young men, especially, who, at first, are attracted to his style and committed to it as an unerring guide, come, at length, in their maturer judgment, to question where they have blindly accepted, and somewhat modify their allegiance. Mr. Arnold, in his *American Addresses*, refused to rank Mr. Emerson, as he also did Mr. Carlyle, among "the great writers" or "the great men of letters." He used the word great as it is applicable to such historic authors as Plato and Cicero, Pascal and Voltaire and Bacon—writers "whose prose, by a kind of native necessity, is true and sound," who have "a genius and an instinct

for style." From such a "charmed circle" as this, Mr. Arnold himself must be excluded. A representative writer of English prose, he is not so in the largest sense, as Cicero in Latin letters or De Quincey in English. Whatever the merits of his style may be, as we have discussed them, he has not that "vision and faculty divine" which belong to the eminently great prose-writer as to the eminently great poet. He does not see deep enough and far enough to pen oracular words for those who are waiting for them. Culture, as he conceived it, can never rise to the height of power. Criticism, as he applied it, can never be more than an elegant art; while style itself, as he illustrated it, can never be that inspiring procedure which we find it to be in the writings of the masters—in the poetry of Shakespeare or in the prose of Pascal. A cultured, an acute, and a dignified style is one thing, and marks the good writer. A profound, philosophic, comprehensive, and soul-stirring style is another and a grander thing, and marks the "great writer." We have a style before us that pleases our taste, impresses our minds, corrects, in many instances, our erroneous judgments, and rebukes our natural tendencies to the lighter and baser forms of literature; and this is all. When the profoundest depths of our being are to be reached and roused; when we are to be uplifted to that sublime spiritual outlook of which Milton and Longinus speak; when we are to be so addressed and moved that the thoughts of the author take possession of us, and make us efficient factors in the world's intellectual and moral advancement, then must we look elsewhere than here,—to those supremely-gifted authors who are great of a truth, and who make us great as well, to the degree in which we hold reverential converse with them. That style is great, and that only, which is instinct throughout with the very spirit of power; which, while obedient to the laws of literary art, is immeasurably above all art; and, with all its marks of human origin and limitation about it, is seen to have, in its character and method, something that is supernal.

T. W. HUNT.

JOHN RICHARD GREEN.

In the half-dozen years that have elapsed since the death of the author of the *Short History*, his friends have had time to measure the greatness of their loss, but in nowise to be consoled for it. He is still living in their memory; to them he is still a reality; they say, in the words of Mrs. Craik's touching lament for "Douglas," "All men beside him seem to me like shadows"; and, as they grow older, the recollection of what he was becomes more and more vivid, while the surroundings fade. The constant companionship of such a man as John Richard Green was a period of pure enjoyment, only marred by anxiety on account of his failing health.

It is now just twenty years since I made Green's acquaintance, and my recollections of what speedily ripened into a warm friendship are still fresh. He had reluctantly decided to retire from the East-End parish on account of failing health. He still wore the clerical costume and the white tie, and I remember well the impression his appearance made upon me. His figure was slight and below middle height, but, once you had seen him, your gaze was concentrated on his face and head. Mr. Sandys's portrait, prefixed to the *Conquest of England*, is very like in the intensity of the expression, but not so much so in the features. The nose was very small, and was overshadowed by the brow of the highly-developed forehead. In a cloak-room you could always recognize his hat by its extraordinary diameter. The eyes were rather sunk, and were not, I think, quite straight; but no one who ever encountered them could forget their keenness—their appearance of being able to see through anything. He was very conscious of his own bodily insignificance, and I think, of all the countless anecdotes he knew, none pleased him more than that which represents Wilkes as saying, "Give me half an hour's start, and I can beat the handsomest man in England." He was a great admirer of physical beauty, both in men and women, and especially of tallness. At the time I speak of, he was in a transitional state, feeling and seeing, with his usual mental clear-sightedness, that he could no longer do justice to the claims of his parish, and that, by giving it up, he might be able to

perform a great service, not for a single place only, but for his country at large. He would greatly have liked to enter Parliament, but had exhausted his bodily strength at Stepney. A long and severe visitation of cholera, through which he ministered to his people, literally night and day, may be said to mark the date of the beginning of his decline. This was in 1867, I think. The Archbishop, Tait, who greatly esteemed Green, would have wished that he should accept a country living; but, on ascertaining that his mind was made up, he very gracefully attached him to himself, by finding or forming for him the post of honorary Lambeth Librarian. In this capacity Green had, I believe, apartments assigned to him in the Palace; but, preferring the privacy of lodgings and the drier air of Marylebone, he remained the tenant of a few modest chambers in Beaumont Street, which may hereafter be pointed out as the birthplace of the *Short History of the English People*, just as a house in the neighboring Bentinck Street is shown as that in which Gibbon completed the *History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*. I well remember Green's pleasure when, in one of our many walks together, I pointed it out to him, and when he discovered that, in going and coming between his lodgings and our house, he could pass it without going out of the way.

The characteristic thus indicated was at this period very strong. He took the deepest interest in everything that went on around him, and anything which connected the present and the past, such as a topographical link, was a joy to him. His spirits were usually high, with, of course, the occasional fits of depression which so often mark that kind of temperament. He had a contempt, amounting to impatience, for people wanting in a sense of humor. I think one of the strongest of the many ties which bound him to Archbishop Tait was the Primate's keen enjoyment of a joke. His hatred of dulness was never concealed. He complained bitterly, if he was thrown into the society of "a dry stick"; and the strongest term of vituperation he could use was to call any one "a dull dog." If he saw the smallest spark of originality or genius, or even of humor, in one of those who consulted his superior judgment, he would take infinite pains to foster and encourage it. His East-End friends often made pilgrimages westward to ask for advice; and it was years before the memory of his sympathetic wisdom was forgotten in St. Philip's, Stepney.

The idea of writing a history of England from a new point of

view had long been matured. I think some isolated passages were already written; and a few of them, as, for example, an essay on the election of King Stephen by London, and an account of Bury and the contests between the abbot and the people, had either just appeared or were in print. Mrs. Green says truly, in the introduction to the new edition of the *Short History**: "So closely are the work and the worker bound together that, unless the biography be fully written, no real account of the growth of the book can, indeed, be given." Nevertheless, we cannot but hope that no biography of Green will be written, so long as any of the friends who knew him best, and therefore loved him most, survive to read it.

A complete life of Green would be an impossible task to carry out satisfactorily. First of all, such a biography would have to be founded on the personal recollections of a hundred different men and women, each of whom knows, perhaps, only one aspect of his character. "Brilliancy" and "versatility" are the words which come into the mind when we think of his conversation. The account of each period of his life, for it was divided very sharply into distinct periods, would have to be supplied by the person with whom he was most intimate at the time. He used, with great gusto, to tell the story of a friend of his who had been at Rugby under Arnold, and who, after reading Stanley's life of the great schoolmaster, exclaimed: "That's very nice; but where is Black Tom?" The same kind of puzzle would be felt by any reader who knew Green, after reading any possible biography. "Where is *my* Green?" would be the question. A collection of his letters might give some idea of the man. But to publish those of the highest interest would be an unpardonable breach of confidence, at least during the time of this generation. He frequently said: "I never can talk freely to any one whom I suspect of keeping a diary." One of his friends, one in whom he always found a sympathetic listener, and who received many of his confidences, used to be amused by hearing Green say he could trust his sieve-like memory. He enjoyed saying sharp things to those he knew best; but though extremely witty and amusing in conversation, he never made a really unkind remark to any one; not that he was what is called "amiable," or "popular," but, rather, because he would have thought it

* *A Short History of the English People.* By John Richard Green, Honorary Fellow of Jesus College, Oxford. With Maps and Tables. New edition, thoroughly revised. New York, 1888: Harper & Brothers.

beneath him. He did not care to associate with stupid people, or people whom he even suspected of stupidity; and the friends he gathered most closely about him were, in many instances, men who were supposed to know some subject thoroughly. Each man, therefore, of the whole group imagined that his particular object or 'ology was the one thing in which Green took the most interest. I can recall many examples of this versatility, and need only mention that the late John M'Lennan told me that Green knew more than any one else of the subject of his recondite anthropological studies; and the late Charles Appleton made a similar remark with respect to his learning in (I think, but am not very sure) theology.

It would be impossible to give an adequate idea of the inexhaustible fund of interest which he had always at command for the ambitions, troubles, doubts, or successes of his friends. Literary jealousy was unknown to him. After laboring hard at some historical problem, he would place the results of his researches freely at the disposal of the first man who seemed likely to be able to make a good use of them. He revelled in the good work done by others. Sick or busy, he could always find time to help a serious worker who sought his advice. How much I am indebted to him, I can never compute. He was not content with inculcating historical accuracy; literary style was, in his opinion, quite as necessary. A German in research, a Frenchman in writing—that was his formula; and a thorough familiarity with French historians, and novelists, too, had more to do with the nervous, manly, graphic English of his works than is generally supposed. I have heard him say that English history should be written so as to be as entertaining as a French novel. I have seen his proof-sheets, on many occasions, covered with alterations and erasures; and the light and brilliant articles, republished from the *Saturday Review* in his *Stray Studies from England and Italy*, were not "knocked off," but were the result, first of an elaborate system of notes and observations, next of very careful writing, and, finally, of a corrected proof, of which he frequently required a revise. Some of his friends rather grudged the pains he took at this time in writing what, after all, were merely fugitive articles. Among them were all the best of the series known as "The Girl of the Period," and when a volume containing a selection was sent to him from America, I remember his going through it and claiming his own. He wrote two articles, and sometimes three, a week. One was generally of the kind just indicated, and one was a review.

A considerable number of topographical and historical essays also appeared from his pen, many of which, re-written and corrected, formed, afterwards, passages in the *History*. He was not easily satisfied with what he wrote, and would work at his proof-sheets over and over again. But he took equal pains with the proof-sheets of his friends; his advice in such matters was too valuable to be neglected, and I was only one of a number of literary aspirants who sought, and received, his help. I have before me, as I write, the proof of an article on an old London subject, written in 1876, which I submitted to him. It is scored all over with his careful pencil-notes, in a handwriting most difficult to decipher, although it has a strangely deceptive look of clearness and neatness. His ideas always came too rapidly to be written out plainly; and, while laughing at printers' errors, he always boasted that, unlike the writing of a friend whose manuscript was easily read, his "copy" had to be intrusted to the most experienced compositor in the office. It was a source of wonder and entertainment to him, on one or two occasions, to find that the printer had been able to make out what he could not read himself, even though he had written it. He could always boast that his friend, Dean Stanley, wrote even more illegibly, and used to tell a story of dining with the Dean and Lady Charlotte on a Tuesday, at such short notice that he could only answer the invitation by attending. After a very pleasant evening, Lady Charlotte "hoped Mr. Green was coming on Thursday." An explanation ensued. Green had the Dean's note in his pocket, and it was agreed by all three that it might be read either Tuesday or Thursday. He had a pile of note-books filled in his Stepney days at the British Museum, where for many years he read for a few hours every week. He feared to consult them, for they were, unfortunately, written with a soft pencil, and were often to him, at least, illegible. A kind friend afterwards, I believe, deciphered them all.

Green never lost an opportunity of putting his friends forward. At the same time, he was very wary not to be taken with a false show of cleverness, and had very little compassion for pretentious failure. He could not be persuaded to subscribe for a broken-down literary man or his family. A man should not enter on a literary career unless sure of success. The distribution of the "Civil List" pensions was a constant source of annoyance to him. "Why should not a writer provide for his family, as well as any other workman?" It may be worth noticing here that the consciousness of power gave

him a certain dignity of manner long before he had done anything to make himself famous. When he had succeeded, beyond even his fondest hopes, there was no perceptible change in his demeanor. He was generous to a fault in money matters, with the exceptions mentioned above; but he could accept kindness as he gave it, and could never understand any question about money arising between unmarried friends. On the other hand, he was a first-rate man of business, and used to say that the same pains which he took in literature and the form of his mind would, in trade, have made him a millionaire. He was, therefore, a very good adviser in matters of investment, and seemed to know by instinct a safe from an unsafe speculation. He had a horror of debt or any pecuniary difficulty, and worry of this kind affected his health like indigestion or a chill. He was very acute in the perception and interpretation of facial expression, and seldom made a mistake as to character. He was not a great talker, but would listen to any one who had "a statement to make;" and things never had to be explained to him. At the same time, he could talk brilliantly, and I have seen him keep a large party amused and interested without any effort. He had the rare power of being able to turn on his comic vein at will, and was especially happy when he wished to make children laugh. He had a great facility for "improving" or "trimming" any little adventure, until it became a dramatic story. As often as not, he would tell such stories against himself. The consciousness of power which I have mentioned rendered him impervious to any fear of ridicule. If you told him any small anecdote, it was more than likely that, if he met you shortly afterwards in other company, he would tell it, with your authority, so brightened and embellished that you would hardly know your own; yet he would most scrupulously assign to you the honors he had earned for you. This habit, and others of the kind, made some people dislike him as a man who was never serious; but his stories against himself were often marked by a kind of pathos wholly his own, as when he told us how he regretted a trick he had played on a German meteorologist, somewhere on the Riviera. The man provoked him by his dulness; yet he regretted, even as we laughed, that he had alternately poured hot and cold water on the self-registering thermometers. I think he was inclined to condone inaccuracy, when it was coupled with a graphic style, and it is certain that he never spoilt the run of a sentence by pausing to spell the names or make the dates fit. I remember pointing out to him, in a

proof-sheet of the *Short History*, that he had spelled a name in three different ways in as many successive pages. He did not care for such criticism, and insisted that I had overlooked the drift and object of the passage, which was probably true enough. I remember one of his maxims about composition: "Take the public, as it were, into your confidence; write to them as if they knew as much as you do yourself; but in your own mind assume that they know nothing."

As to Green's way of working I have said something. But there is a passage in the *Stray Studies* which I well remember his writing while he was staying with me, at Sevenoaks, in 1871. He had been very poorly and "off work," as he expressed it, but fine weather and open air had begun to restore him; and it was one of his rules not to write when he was disinclined. Work done up-hill, he would say, is seldom good. He was anxious to write a memoir of his dead friend, Edward Denison, but waited until the inspiration came. The moment is thus described:

"There are few stiller things than the stillness of a summer's noon such as this, a summer's noon in a broken woodland, with the deer asleep in the bracken, and the twitter of birds silent in the coppice, and hardly a leaf astir in the huge beeches that fling their cool shade over the grass. Afar off a gilded vane flares out above the gray Jacobean gables of Knoll, the chime of a village clock falls faintly on the ear, but there is no voice or footfall of living thing to break the silence, as I turn over leaf after leaf of the little book I have brought with me from the bustle of town."

He goes on to contrast this "bustle of town" with his "still retreat," and heightens the contrast in an admirable passage, with which he took infinite pains, writing it over and over again; and though it reads so easily, more than a dozen failures were to be found in the waste-paper basket. He was so pleased with it, when it was finished, that I had not the heart to correct his spelling of Knole, and "Knoll" it remains in the book to this day. Surroundings, and the state of his health, had much to do with the ease or difficulty he experienced in composition. In a letter from San Remo he wrote:

"In the middle of November, here I am writing at an open window, catching the last gleam of the day's sunshine! What am I to say of San Remo? Its charm, for it is rather charm than beauty, I think, beautiful as it is, lies in its perfectness, its completeness in itself. Round it circles an amphitheatre of soft hills, with the purple Apennines behind them, hills soft with olive woods and dipping down into gardens of maize, and orchards of oranges and limes, and vineyards dotted with palms. An isolated hill rises from the midst of the space they inclose, and from summit to base of it tumbles the oddest of Italian towns, arches, and churches, and

houses, and steep lanes rushing down to the sea. And the sea lies in its own sweet curve from headland to headland—not our storm-tossed sea, but the sea of the south, all varying and glancing with color ; the dullest rainy day leaving color on it as it leaves color on the far-off hills. Over those hills lies the great Italian plain, and beyond these headlands lie Genoa and Nizza, but it all seems like a far-off world to us happy San Remese, wrapped in our circle of gray hills, and lulled by the murmur of the sea."

A man so sensitive to external impressions, and so fond of scenery, found work comparatively easy, when "lulled by the murmur of the sea." A little later (January 7, 1872) he wrote :

"At present I am working hard, but oddly jumping about from one period to another—yesterday, Lord Clive—to-day, the Lollards—to-morrow, Burns. It matters very little in what order I work, as the plan is all clear in my head ; and so I took a hint from old Lear, who comes in and says, 'Greek day to-day—busy with Marathon.' Then the next day, 'I have been with the Copts all morning, at Beni Hassan.' After all, there is something in not letting one's work bore one, and meanwhile the little book gets on."

His power of concentration on a subject is hardly touched upon here; but when Green was interested in what he was doing, he knew neither fatigue nor hunger. No doubt he injured his constitution by this assiduity. A foggy morning would sometimes completely incapacitate him from continuing work already mapped out or begun: on such occasions he seldom tried to force his inclinations, and would bury himself in an interesting book, especially a novel. He was always very fond of fiction, and even a second-rate novel would absorb him for a time. Brain-weariness, in the usual sense of the term, never affected him, and his mind was as clear, and his literary perceptions as vivid, at the end of a long day's work as at the beginning. It was only the bodily power that failed him. He was a rapid reader, and used "to tear the heart out of a book" almost in a minute. I remember showing him an essay of which I was very anxious to have his approval. He walked up and down the room with it for a short time, keeping up a lively conversation all the while with a young lady who was present. Finally he laid down the book, saying nothing about it, to my deep disappointment. The next day I saw him again. "By the way," he said, "that memoir you showed me at your house seems to me the best thing you ever did," and then he proceeded to analyze it carefully, not having missed a single point of importance.

It is not to be inferred that Green was fond of general society. Far from it : he liked lively people, was very critical of female beauty,

and especially admired an air of distinction; but in a mixed company, and among strangers, he would, so to speak, retreat into himself. This was particularly the case when he was suffering from illness. His question at our door was, not whether the master and mistress were at home,—that did not so much matter,—but was any one else with them. He said himself, in one of his letters: "It is only by a rigid incivility I can guard myself against the nuisance of society." In March, 1871, he wrote:

"My old hatred of 'society' and my old contempt for 'the world' have grown into a mania, among the silences and glories of the Riviera. And dear as some few people in England are to me, I feel more and more how delicate our relations and friendships will become, as their life sheers further and further away from mine—as they become, whether I will or no, unintelligible to me and I to them. . . . It seems to me sometimes as if, just when I felt the need of sympathy and kindness most keenly, the old sympathies to which I have clung in a silent, passionate way, were fated to drift from me. Perhaps so; and, indeed, it would solve many a problem—it would be harder to live and easier to die."

There was one constant exception in his character to this dislike to general society. He loved children, and not only could always amuse them, but was always willing to do so, and was quite at the mercy of his small friends. I believe it is true that, at an important epoch in his life, he reversed a grave decision because a little girl threatened "to sit down and cry," if he did not do as she wished. Before such an alternative he was powerless. An acute perception made all his observations upon child-life singularly interesting. The dullest matron found a willing listener, when she talked to him about her children. He was not easily tired in a mother's out-pourings over her brood, or a father's hopes and fears for his boys at school or college. In the same way, he was curious as to the idiosyncrasies of the servants who attended upon him, in the few houses which he honored by assuming that he was always a welcome guest. It amused him to study their modes of expression and dialects. The beadle of a neighboring church was one of his acquaintances, and supplied him with a store of entertaining anecdotes. Nothing human was beneath his notice, or escaped the interest he took in all that concerned his friends. Yet he was easily bored by "society," and, though he could listen for hours to the prattle of a child, he succumbed at once to the dull twaddle of a would-be philosopher, or to ordinary small-talk. His face fell, he grew uneasy and fidgety, looked for his hat, and was gone, in silence, as if offended.

His interest in children and all their ways was present even in

his letters from abroad. From Italy he wrote about two boys who were in the house in which he wintered :

"A. is one of those charming little dramatists, who, like Shakespeare, invent, and act the dramas they invent. As I pass his bedroom, I hear him driving teams, commanding armies, preaching, discussing, in a loud full voice that makes an odd contrast with his little figure of nine years old. H., of thirteen, is the outdoors boy of the two, scurrying along the paths on his pony, feeding and chasing his rabbits, roaming among the olive woods to catch sight of the partridges, coming home with violets, and ferns, and boyish 'secrets' of where the black iris blows and where the first narcissi are blossoming. Two days ago, he roamed round the house all the morning with a face of mystery ; then after dinner he took me apart and asked in a significant way if I could go to a certain valley with him. Off we started, clambering up rocky paths, and past little shrines with painted Madonnas, and skirting lemon gardens, and cutting short cuts through the gray olive orchards, till we came out on a little valley nestling among the spurs of the hills, shut in on all sides save one, where its little torrent, swollen with the winter rains, rushed out over rock-shelf and pebble-bed to the sea. Down, leaping from terrace to terrace, till the rush of the waters seemed close to us, and then at our feet were hundreds of yellow narcissi,—the treasured 'secret,'—and H. was plunging among them and gathering handfuls for our rooms at home. It was so hot in the bright sunshine that I could only lounge against an olive and watch idly the boy's glee, and yet his business-like reluctance to waste a moment on what he disdainfully calls 'poetry.'"

It may be worth while to put on record Green's answer to a question I asked him as to what he liked best in his own writing. It was characteristic of him that he replied at once that he thought he had put his most delicate work into an essay entitled "Buttercups," which appears in the *Stray Studies* (p. 201). I further asked him as to his historical and critical work. He thought his "character of Queen Elizabeth" the best passage in the *Short History;* and the best criticism, the article on Vergil in the *Stray Studies* (p. 259). He was extremely devoted to music ; and while at the East End his one amusement was to attend a classical concert. He could not bear to suppress organ-grinders, though they worried him, because of the intense pleasure the children of the poorer quarters took in dancing to the music. His natural ability was so great that each "organ," to use the phrenological term, was highly developed, and what, in comparison to the rest of his mind was slight and weak, was yet stronger than the same "organ" in others. He could thus discuss learnedly and brightly subjects which were of very little importance to him. Although, for example, his knowledge of chemistry or mathematics was as nothing, in comparison with the vast stores of information he had laid up on history and topography, yet

he knew much more than most people. With all this learning, I never met any one more willing to acknowledge ignorance, or more anxious to acquire further information. He literally, as Mrs. Green well remarks, "died learning." A list of his attainments would be impossible; the only defect in his mental powers being a difficulty in learning by rote. He forgot nothing he read, yet he could remember very little off book. This was a peculiarity also, it is said, of Dean Swift. It must have had considerable influence on Green's style. In spite of it, however, he could repeat the whole of the Psalms. Besides the usual Greek and Latin he learned at Oxford, he was familiar with the mediæval languages, especially the Latin of the chroniclers; and could read manuscript, however contracted, very fluently. Only a few years before his death he commenced the study of Egyptology, on a trip up the Nile, and could discuss the phonetic value and philological significance of hieroglyphics. He was fond of political economy and statistics, and had an excellent head for figures. His first studies in art were concerned chiefly with architecture, but he became very learned, later on, in the history of painting, and enjoyed a fine gallery with a keen and vivid pleasure.

His knowledge of poetry and poets was extensive and in many languages. He could spell out German, but, though he knew Old English, the "high Dutch" was always a difficulty to him. His French, on the other hand, ancient or modern, was something very unusual in an Englishman.

It may be that some of his admirers will like to know where Green chiefly lived. Since the publication of Mr. Laurence Hutton's *Literary Landmarks of London*, such information seems to have acquired fresh importance. He held the living of St. Philip's, Stepney, in the heart of the so-called "East End," and lived, from 1866 to 1869, in the vicarage, Beaumont Square. By a curious coincidence, when he removed westward, he halted in Beaumont Street, St. Marylebone, and there, at No. 4, he lived, when in London, for seven years, migrating to 25 Connaught Street, then, I think, called Upper Berkeley Street West, in 1876. A year later, after his marriage, he removed to 14 Kensington Square, which, however, was only a summer residence, as his rapidly-failing health obliged him to take the Villa St. Nicholas at San Remo, and there he breathed his last, in the winter of 1882.

W. J. LOFTIE.

CRITICISMS, NOTES, AND REVIEWS.

THE POLITICAL SITUATION.

If party organization were as complete as party managers would like to see it, the result of the election, now so near, would be already determined. And yet within the next few days more effort will be exerted than ever before to influence voters. By far the largest number of thinking men are beyond the reach of artfulness and chicane. The temperate and logical discussion of great questions which has thus far characterized the conduct of the campaign will doubtless have worked its perfect work in many minds. Others, who are identified altogether with the organism of the great parties, are also beyond the reach of the schemes practised by unscrupulous demagogues on the eve of elections. The stable elements of society have taken their position and will not change.

In so far as this is true, the country has every reason to congratulate itself. At no time within the experience of the present political generation has principle been so successful in shutting out prejudice in the interval between conventions and election day. Not for many, many years have we had issues so clearly defined and so frankly acknowledged. Even those newspapers which honestly profess to be party organs, recognize and perform their share in the creation of high standards in public morality. And as to the stump-speaking, whether in Congress or when confined to its legitimate home, there are a directness and a proportion such as have been very uncommon in later days. The "grand rally" of the olden time can no longer be easily had, and when it does take place, both numbers and enthusiasm are sadly deficient. The decline of the torch-light procession bids fair to remove, within a calculable period, a most picturesque element from American political life. The club banners still flap over our heads, but in diminished numbers, and the effigies of the candidates look out from the meshes of the nets in which they are entangled, with a perplexity which points a moral.

There seem to be two causes for the increase, proportionately, in the stable element among American voters. The first is the increased efficiency of educational methods. The question, Did you get that idea in college or the university? is common coin in political discussion. Demagogues have developed a parrot-like monotony in their outcry against the classes of enlightened men who deal with historic experience and elevated principle. And then the better portion of the press—perhaps it needs no defence; in any case, if it does, one plea will be unquestioned: that it instructs, as no

other means ever devised has done, the largest number of citizens in the alphabet of political thinking. Intelligent readers demand and get discussion, and unintelligent readers are benefited by it according to their light. Another cause is to be found in the increased efficiency of party organization and the importance of political conventions. It is a distinct gain that political excitement should be divided, the largest and worst part being expended early in the year, before the meetings to nominate Presidential candidates.

Yet this very stability of purpose produces uncertainty as to the outcome; and another consideration, in any survey of a great campaign like the present, cannot escape notice. The advance of Civil-Service reform by even the toddling steps of infancy has produced the predicted result. The disreputable self-seekers, heelers, vote-traders, saloon-runners, all who desire to prostitute the public welfare for private lust, have been paralyzed by the feeling of uncertainty about the reward of their exertions. The patriotism which flowed from free beer and selfishness has been found out and exposed in its true character. The men who practised it are grown not only very retiring and coy, but very uncertain in their party allegiance. The absence of their giddy enthusiasm is making itself felt. Another ground of uncertainty is in the movement of free-trade Republicans and protection Democrats. We shall, in all likelihood, be spared the use of such unwieldy terms in the future. The issue between high and low tariff is squarely taken, and all others will for a season be atrophied. The question is, How many who were Democrats before this epoch are now Republicans, and vice-versâ? A few days will answer it; meantime we do well to fight a square fight and avoid throwing chaff.

These and other reflections of a like character are full of encouragement. They show us our country in circumstances which encourage political morality. They throw into shadow the puerility and bad blood which so often disfigure our contests at the polls. They indicate a growth in the recognition of moral force among us. Government by discussion has well-nigh disappeared, as far as Congress is concerned; it takes a new lease of life in the machinery evolved by an institutional people, strong to meet every emergency by ingenuity and adaptability. Our forefathers meant to secure it by their peculiar plan of representative government; they failed, in large measure, and created a system of aristocratic organization in legislation and administration, which yet has the great merit of securing well-considered action. The country itself has devised a plan for discussion by which every man can have the floor, whereby the most heated invective can do little harm and the calmest argument accomplishes the greatest good. The press and the platform, by the accurate interpretation of election results before they are reached, impose upon every incoming Administration a popular policy which makes the influence of public opinion very direct. The operation of this extra-constitutional and unlegal machinery, is, for this once, at least, to dignify party strife and emphasize moral questions.

There is less ground for optimistic conclusions when we examine the character of this morality, for it has the earth-taste. There are forms and degrees of state socialism which are just and beneficent. Its extremes are baneful, even destructive, to the very existence of the highest form of social union. It is certainly true that we are in an industrial age. All wise and just men rejoice that the movements of armies and the schemes of dynastic diplomacy are relegated to their deserved insignificance in our nineteenth-century American scheme of life. But the danger of confining the function and office of the state within economic grounds is very great. And this appears to be what both the great parties are doing. The extension of sound reform in the Civil Service receives but slight attention in both the platforms. The ablest speakers on both sides avoid the theme with distressing unanimity. As to other high moral questions, they are scarcely heard of by the masses or mentioned except in the discussion of reformers.

It is clear to the intelligent observer that the extreme variety of free trade, the *laisser-faire* and *laisser-aller* theories, which would abolish customs taxation, forms no part of the doctrine of any considerable number of politicians or voters in either party. The strife is all about the degree of taxation to be imposed on one class in the community for the benefit of another or of the whole country. All talk to the contrary is either mere bluster or springs from deplorable ignorance. If the scope of the question were constantly kept before us, and its far-reaching influences thoroughly understood, the true statesman and the political moralist might well be content. The relative position of social classes of men in the various occupations of life, of one community to another,—all these are bound up in it and are matters worthy the attention of a free and enlightened people. More vital still are the questions of private morality which it raises: the duty of every man not only to exist, but to exist nobly, to earn the best sustenance for his family and himself; the duty of every individual to provide not only the mere physical necessaries of life, but for the intellectual, moral, and spiritual needs of our higher nature.

No doubt there are writers in the newspapers of the best sort, in the magazines and reviews, who honestly set forth these corollaries of the main proposition, and propound to every reader the query each must answer for himself: How far can I seek my own advantage without injustice to my fellow men? to what degree must I submit to taxation for the general good? and how much may I demand of the liberty and money of my neighbor, for my own benefit? But even by such teachers, not to speak of the pot-house orator and the "penny screamers" of the press, no satisfactory answer is given. And here lies the gist of the whole matter. Without formulating it in just such an unpleasant statement, the general reply of every man to himself, and of most speakers and writers to their audience, seems to be: Go as far as you dare; take what the law allows, of course, and as much more as public ignorance and sluggishness will permit. In voting, as in every other part of your conduct, be guided by your own interest alone. That will, of

course, clash with the interest of others at a certain point, and the violence of the clash will show when you must—that is, when you ought to—stop grabbing.

There is a mysterious truth in this position. Force is an element in all order. More of the legitimate governments of the world have had their origin in strife than in any other source. Within the sphere of government, the arbitrament of force, whether in numerical majority, skill in managing men, wealth, or any other of the manifold manifestations of power—some form of force determines results and prevents anarchy. But, on the other hand, as Rousseau so beautifully said: "The strongest is never strong enough to be always the master, if he does not transform his might into right, and obedience into duty." This is the principle which we do not sufficiently emphasize in our present political movement. We dwell too exclusively on what we can do, heedless, in a high degree, of what we ought to do.

The aphorism of the Republicans is: "Protect American industries for the benefit of the whole country." That means keep the home market for the American manufacturer and increase the wages of the American artisan. Incidentally the party remarks that to it was due the preservation of the Union—the possibility of there being a home market at all, as far as the Southern States are concerned. It points out that the Mills Bill is a discrimination against Northern capital and Northern labor, an attempt to revive sectional struggles for supremacy, and calls on the North to gird itself for the conflict. The Republicans, individually and—witness many of their leaders—collectively, furnish the greatest support to all the great social reforms, temperance in particular and the removal of the Civil Service from the fetters, or rather enginery, of unscrupulous politics. They claim to be the party of steady habits, plain living, and high thinking. 'Put us back into power and the country shall be free from English interference; cheap bread and financial security will be assured; if the surplus be an evil, we will diminish it by the abolition of internal taxes; give up one of the strongest supports of centralization, by the extinction of the class of internal-revenue collectors, and so far increase the autonomy and power of the individual States. We enter a general denial of all Democratic claims; assume the burden of proof regarding campaign assessments on office-holders for a corruption-fund, and stigmatize our opponents as having an unholy alliance with foreigners, and therefore unpatriotic; as embodying all the lower classes, the prejudiced, the ignorant, and the unprincipled, in their organism; and in league with that sum of all human villanies, the liquor-power.'

The Democrats, on the other hand, refuse to assume the defensive. The party declares itself worthy to retain the power that it holds, and points to its conduct during the past four years. The one reform issue in the interest of administration has been squarely met. The spoils-principle has received its mortal wound, though expediency demands that its death should be a lingering one. The tariff is a tax, and, in its present form, a local issue

operating solely for the benefit of one section. We have not entered, they declare, upon a crusade of free trade, but propose modifications of our import duties to equalize the operation of war taxation, to free the legislation of the country from the temptation of a highly harmful surplus, secure justice to all sections and to the individual tax-payer, increase American enterprise by restoring the equilibrium of competition, and enable every man to supply his wants in the cheapest markets, as far as is compatible with the public welfare. We aim to extinguish all discrimination against social classes of every kind, in particular against the great mass of agricultural workers, and the vast numbers of clerks and salaried men in all professions. The Republicans, say they, are the party of an emergency that is past. American society has entered upon a stage which is of the present, and demands normal treatment. We have the longest American record, and are the best fitted to deal with the American problems of to-day. Behold the self-styled patriots rejecting the Fisheries Treaty—a sensible adjustment of an international question—for the sake of securing the foreign votes in the country, and pandering to a class which cares more for the country of its birth than for that of its adoption. And now they want free whiskey rather than plain economic justice, of course in the interest of temperance reform !

Is there anything either unmoral or immoral in either of these positions, supposing them to represent the somewhat dim presentation of the case which an ordinary voter makes to himself? There comes a distinct affirmative answer. Let alone, for the moment, the insincerity which is recognizable in the tone of party deliverances, in the immorality of persistent appeals to personal interest, and in the behavior of party managers ; pass by the certainty the country begins to feel that power is an end, and not a means, in the feeling of many office-holders ; and disregard the suspicion that high-sounding moral generalizations are mere traps to catch the unwary ;—there is behind all this, and fundamental to it, a body of reservations, if not of evasions, about vital questions which ought to be openly discussed and not dwarfed or hidden. What does either party intend in the matter of American citizenship, in regard to the ignorance and pauperism which flood our whole country, retard the advance of our civilization, and desecrate the franchise ? What is their attitude regarding the vice of intemperance and the curse of the liquor traffic ?—questions which now transcend all bounds of personal right and private morality, and, by the burdens they lay upon the State, invade the province of public morals. What may the country expect from the office-holders of the parties which ask for the popular endorsement in regard to marriage laws and the sanctity of the family, or concerning the character of instruction in the public schools ?

This is, of course, no new discovery. We have already the beginnings, even if, as is probable, they are destined to be abortive, of two small parties which found their right to exist on the disregard of manifest duty by the great parties. Schism is almost as bad and desperate a thing politically as

it is ecclesiastically. It is still the duty of every reformer to work within the bounds of his party, as it was and is that of the sectary to shun new religious organizations bearing the name of church, and work out his change within the historic churches already existing. If I desire the perpetuation of American civilization, and the destruction of baneful foreign influence, I can best do it, or, rather, I can only do it, by the use of a great machine with adequate motive power and parts strong enough to stand the strain of use. To attempt the construction of a new one with inadequate means is folly. Even as a protest, the Prohibition and American parties are inexcusable for the waste of superior material and energy they entail on our politics. Prohibition has accomplished much, but very little, if any, of its success is due to its entry on the arena of politics under the shield of a so-called party. In fact, as an organized moral crusade, with no political pretensions, it would certainly have advanced far beyond its present line of offensive works.

This is the more striking because the remedy is so easy to reach. To use it requires moral courage of the highest order. Vote with that one of the great parties which embodies in its creed the largest amount of truth and the widest circumference of reform. Be an independent in politics. Compel the great parties to mount moral heights for the sake of success, and teach them that the reward of pure professions and clean behavior is certain. The Republican party will not soon forget the rebuke administered in 1884 by the Independents, nor the Democrats the more stinging one they received a quarter of century since.

There are times and circumstances when the Independent in politics is a danger. If there were signs of disorder in our great political machinery of conventions and parties, it would be the duty of every thoughtful citizen to become, for the time, a partisan. If there were some vital question, like disunion, under serious discussion, every patriot would at once rush to the camp of those who were right on that point, without reference to minor questions or a too sanctimonious inquiry into the character of his associates. Party ranks should be dressed for great crises, and deserters should be branded, if not shot. But such is not the case in the present campaign, nor was it in the last.

There never was a time when party organization and loyalty were stronger than they are now ; there never was a period when greater docility characterized the mass of voters. Nevertheless, as always in a sound government, there are questions of high importance which must be settled not by party managers or docile voters. Finite statemanship can understand the popular demand only by recorded votes, and it behooves the intelligent citizen to put his where it will do the most good. Not in parties composed, in certain proportions, of sincere enthusiasts and the schemers for power who trade votes, and otherwise practise on unsuspecting voters, will the thinking voter accomplish the most by his ballot, but where it assists in the rise or fall of a party accustomed to a sobering responsibility and the exercise of power.

A BOOK OF VERSES.*

At this time of over-production of waste-basket rhyme, it is pleasant to welcome a real addition to the poetry of the day by one who furnishes ample evidence of the true poetic gift. Such a welcome may be given heartily to Mr. Henley's *Book of Verses*. These verses are collected in three divisions: In Hospital, Rhymes and Rhythms; Life and Death (Echoes); and Bric-à-brac. One needs not the subscription, "The Old Infirmary, Edinburgh," placed at the end of the first division, to tell that its verses describe a hard personal experience and the reflections that came to a suffering patient during a tedious recovery from a serious and painful operation. The theme is not a tempting one. A man, evidently the poet, is taken to the hospital, is chloroformed, undergoes an operation, awakes to a "dull, new pain," and then awaits a slow return to the liberty of his fellowmen. While he muses the fire burns. It is not so strange, after all, that the poetic fire should be kindled and fed in such an atmosphere. The pathos and pain of life seem to lend themselves more readily to the poet's uses than life's joy and brightness. Yet we must not expect from a hospital bed an exuberant optimism. It is scarcely the place for the birth of the poetry of hope and cheer. We cannot be surprised at the sombre hue of the thoughts that find such vigorous expression in the verses before us. The imprisoned poet had plenty of time to observe carefully the persons and scenes which he describes with a terseness that shows his power. With a few rapid master-strokes he depicts the attendants, his neighbors, the shuffling eager crowd of students, the calm, skilful surgeon, the clinic, two sick children, a would-be suicide. At length there comes the exultation of his discharge, and then the strangeness of the common sights and sounds of the outside world, after the long quiet of the hospital walls. In all there is very decided poetic power. The reader is not loath to pass on to the poems of Life and Death. The very first of these enchants him. It would be pleasant to quote it. There is a charm in its three stanzas that cannot be described. Only a sad personal experience would account for the more than minor key of the second. Certainly it is not the universal experience that "Love must wither, or must live alone and weep." There is a fine Stoicism in Number IV., one of the strongest in the collection. Its date probably brings it within the hospital period. It is soon followed by another in which brave Stoicism gives way to a sad despair. Turn another page, and hope smiles again in three sweet stanzas. Number XVII. might have been written by Heine, but not improved by the German. In it a joyful major song is brought to a tearful conclusion by a single minor chord. Indeed, through all these Echoes, there is much in form and tone to remind of the German poet, without any suggestion of imitation. The Bric-à-Brac bring us into a close contact with nature—nature outside of ourselves—and have, consequently, a more gladsome ring. As poetry, these verses deserve almost unqualified

* *A Book of Verses.* By W. E. Henley. London, 1888: David Nutt.

praise. They have a vigor of thought, an unusualness of diction, often a melodiousness of rhyme, that excite admiration. There is much more than versification here. As it seems to the reviewer, there is poetry of uncommon merit, as well as the earnest of a still richer, and, let us hope, a more buoyant, contribution to the delight of all lovers of true poetry. It may not be out of place to urge Mr. Henley to make the philosophy of his next verses more cheerful. One quotation may find a place. It is from the next to last poem of the collection.

> 'Dear Heart, it shall be so. Under the sway
> Of death the past's enormous disarray
> Lies hushed and dark. Yet though there come no sign,
> Live on well pleased: immortal and divine,
> Love shall still tend you, as God's angels may,
> When you are old."

GILDER'S POEMS.*

In the three collections of poems that lie at hand from the pen of Mr. Gilder, it may be somewhat arbitrary to adduce specific selections as a basis for comment. Still, no extended work of poet or prose-writer can be expected to be uniformly good, or good throughout, in the same sense. Hence, in *The New Day*, we read with peculiar pleasure such examples as "The Prelude," "Interludes" and "After Song," "Words Without Song," "The Unknown Way," and "When the Last Doubt is Doubted." In *The Celestial Passion*, we note "The Prelude," "Holy Land," "To Rest from Weary Work," "Love and Death," "Beyond the Branches of the Pine," and "Undying Light." In *Lyrics*, we mark "A Song of Early Autumn," "After Sorrow's Night," "The Homestead," "The Poet's Fame," and "When the True Poet Comes." In this era of what the English students would call Nonsense Verse, and what we may be allowed to call unpoetic, it is refreshing to read poetry that is out-and-out poetry, rather than prose, or rather than some undefinable product not yet classified. In the reading of these poems, we have been often reminded of the rhythmical resonance of Swinburne, of the deep and pervasive pathos of Mrs. Browning, and of the spiritual purity of Keats. We indicate, just here, the three radical features of the author's verse, and, as far as they go, they belong to the first order of poetic art. They are rhythm, passion, and purity. The one expresses, in a measure, the external, as the others express the internal, characteristics of genuine song. All such verse pleases the ear, and stirs and elevates the soul; and when the inner sense and spirit of the lines blend in fullest measure with the outer melody, the result can be nothing less than the most pronounced æsthetic pleasure. These poems evince what Mr. Arnold would

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* *The New Day. The Celestial Passion. Lyrics.* By R. W. Gilder. New York, 1887: The Century Co.

call a "sense of beauty," that deep poetic undertone that lies below all poetic art, and makes the poetry what it is. They evince more than this—a sense of sympathy and purity and spiritual power, throbbing like a heart-beat through every line and letter. They are, in Miltonic phrase, "sensuous and passionate," never descending to the low emotional level of the fleshly school, but clear and clean and healthful to the end. To adopt the author's phrase, the passion is "celestial" rather than earthly, and lifts the soul that feels its power, to higher planes of thought and outlook. The range of the poems, either in a mental or a literary point of view, is not a spacious one. The three collections are alike lyrical, and, whether as to conception or final motive, rarely pass beyond the province of poetic sentiment. There is nothing here of the epic excellence of Tennyson or the dramatic skill of Robert Browning, but there is genuine poetry, simple, natural, tender, and persuasive, a lyric charm of idea and rendering quite too infrequent in modern verse. As we turn the pages, we quote a passage or two ;

"I am the spirit of the morning sea ;
I am the awakening and the glad surprise ;
I fill the skies
With laughter and with light."

"Like a violet, like a lark,
Like the dawn that kills the dark,
Like a dew-drop trembling, clinging,
Is the poet's first sweet singing."

"Through love to light ! Oh, wonderful the way
That leads from darkness to the perfect day ;
From darkness and from sorrow of the night,
To morning that comes singing o'er the sea.
Through love to light ! Through light, O God. to thee,
Who art the love of love, the eternal light of light."

What exquisite harmony and what high poetic sentiment are here !

Epics and dramas have their place in literature, but what is poetry, after all, but the deepest experience of the human heart written and voiced in the forms of beauty ! It is what a poet-critic has recently designated it, "impassioned truth."

STEVENSON'S ESSAYS.*

THE author of *Prince Otto* and the *New Arabian Nights* is found, in his essays, in his best narrative and descriptive mood. As voluminous as he has been of late in prose and verse, in satire, story, and song, the reading public are still demanding more and more from his fertile pen. In the thirty papers making up the volumes before us, there is, as the author states, "a

* *Memoirs and Portraits. Virginibus Puerisque.* By Robert L. Stevenson. New York, 1887 : Charles Scribner's Sons.

certain thread of meaning," or, as he further states, "they are like milestones on the wayside of life." A few of these papers may be selected as specimens of that light and chatty style of which Mr. Stevenson is a master. In "The Foreigner at Home," he gives us a suggestive contrast between the Englishman and the Scotchman, as the one inquires, "What is your name?" and the other, "What is the chief end of man?" In "College Memories," the author takes occasion to emphasize the debt of gratitude which the student owes to the faithful instructor, and adds some timely hints as to the relation of study to physical health.

In "Talk and Talkers," we have portrayed, in the characters of Jack, Burly, Cockshot, and others, the typical conversationalists of society, in the course of which description no opportunity is lost of thrusting at those loquacious prattlers; the more they say, the less they say. In "Truth of Intercourse," it is well remarked "that the difficulty of literature is, not to write, but to write what you mean." In "An Apology for Idlers," the author is at his best in the sphere of paradox and half-truths, not infrequently passing beyond the limits of accurate ethical teaching. It is, however, with the æsthetics rather than with the ethics of these papers that we are dealing. With this in view, we note the freedom and finish of their literary form. Presented in plain and colloquial English, they carry their own praise with them, and are directly in the line of what may be termed the prevailing fashion of "putting things." Literary fashions, as other fashions, come and go, and with as little reason. We are living, at present, in the Golden Age of Descriptive Miscellany. He who wishes to be read, must write as Mr. Stevenson has here written, on topics germane to the hour and in a style comprehensible at sight. Intellectually stimulating modern prose may or may not be. It must be readable. Before the close of the century, perhaps, the mode may change, and writers and readers alike be asked to do more "high thinking."

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RECORD.

POLITICAL AND GENERAL.

Domestic.

THE PRESIDENTIAL CANVASS.—The PRESIDENTIAL CANVASS may be said to have fairly opened with the RENOMINATION OF PRESIDENT CLEVELAND BY THE DEMOCRATIC NATIONAL CONVENTION, which assembled in St. Louis, June 5. The renomination was made UNANIMOUSLY AND BY ACCLAMATION. For Vice-President, ex-Senator ALLEN G. THURMAN of Ohio was nominated, on the first ballot, the other candidates being Governor Isaac P. Gray of Indiana, and General John C. Black, Commissioner of Pensions. The PLATFORM ADOPTED BY THE CONVENTION "ENDORSES THE VIEWS EXPRESSED BY PRESIDENT CLEVELAND, in his last earnest message to Congress, as the CORRECT INTERPRETATION OF THAT PLATFORM [the one of 1884] upon the QUESTION OF TARIFF REDUCTION, and also endorses the efforts of our Democratic representatives in Congress to secure a reduction of excessive taxation." It declares that the Democratic party has "RESTORED TO THE PEOPLE NEARLY 100,000,000 ACRES OF VALUABLE LAND"; that it has "paid out MORE FOR PENSIONS AND BOUNTIES to the soldiers and sailors of the Republic than was ever paid before during an equal period"; that it has "pursued a FIRM AND PRUDENT FOREIGN POLICY," and that "in every branch and department of the Government, under Democratic control, THE RIGHTS AND THE WELFARE OF ALL THE PEOPLE have been guarded and defended." Recurring to the subject of REVENUE REFORM, the platform asserts that "ALL UNNECESSARY TAXATION IS UNJUST TAXATION," and that "OUR ESTABLISHED DOMESTIC INDUSTRIES AND ENTERPRISES should not and need not be ENDANGERED BY THE REDUCTION AND CORRECTION of the burdens of taxation. On the contrary, a FAIR AND CAREFUL REVISION of our tax laws . . . must PROMOTE AND ENCOURAGE EVERY BRANCH of such industries and enterprises." "The INTERESTS OF AMERICAN LABOR," it is affirmed, "should, IN NO EVENT, BE NEGLECTED."—The REPUBLICAN NATIONAL CONVENTION met in Chicago, June 19, and did not adjourn until the 25th. DESPITE MR. BLAINE'S LETTER, published in February, in which he declared that his name would not be presented to the Convention, a STRONG MOVEMENT IN FAVOR OF HIS NOMINATION was still in progress when, on May 30, there was made public another letter from him, in which he made this emphatic statement: "Assuming that the PRESIDENTIAL NOMINATION COULD, BY ANY POSSIBLE CHANCE, BE OFFERED TO ME, I could not accept it without leaving, in the minds of thousands, the impression that I had not been free from indirection, AND, THEREFORE, I COULD NOT ACCEPT IT AT ALL." Nevertheless, when the Convention met, there appeared to be some doubt whether, after all, Mr. Blaine's name might not be placed at the head of the ticket. Some, at least, of his friends hoped that the convention would FAIL TO UNITE ON ANY OTHER CANDIDATE; in which case, they thought, the nomination of Mr. Blaine would be made. It was believed that, under such circumstances, provided that ALL THE OTHER ASPIRANTS for the nomination should WITHDRAW IN HIS FAVOR, he would not REFUSE THE UNANIMOUS CALL OF HIS PARTY. Mr. Blaine was at this time travelling in England and Scotland. On the third day of the Convention, the platform was adopted, and the following gentlemen were put in nomination for the office of President: Senator JOSEPH R. HAWLEY of Connecticut, Senator JOHN SHERMAN of Ohio, Judge WALTER Q. GRESHAM of Illinois, ex-Senator BENJAMIN HARRISON of Indiana, Senator WILLIAM L. ALLISON of Iowa, Mr. CHAUNCEY M. DEPEW of New York, ex-Governor RUSSELL A. ALGER of Michigan, Governor JEREMIAH RUSK of Wisconsin, and Mayor EDWIN L. FITLER of Philadelphia. On the seventh ballot, taken on June 25, MR. HARRISON WAS NOMINATED. The Hon. LEVI P. MORTON of New York, formerly Minister to France, was NOMINATED FOR VICE-PRESIDENT. The PLATFORM AFFIRMS that "the present Administration, and the Democratic majority in Congress, OWE THEIR EXISTENCE TO THE SUPPRESSION OF THE BALLOT by a criminal nullification of the Constitution and laws of the United States." The CONDUCT OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS by the Administration is denounced for its INEFFICIENCY AND COWARDICE, and for its "WEAK AND UNPATRIOTIC TREATMENT OF THE FISHERIES QUESTION, and its PUSILLANIMOUS SURRENDER of the essential privileges to which our fishing-vessels are entitled in Canadian ports." "The hostile spirit of President Cleveland in his NUMEROUS VETOES OF MEASURES FOR PENSION RELIEF, and the action of the Democratic House of Represen-

tatives in refusing even a consideration of general pension legislation," are also condemned. The REDUCTION OF LETTER-POSTAGE TO ONE CENT PER OUNCE is called for. The MOST SIGNIFICANT PART OF THE PLATFORM is, of course, that relating to the tariff. This matter is treated thus: "We are UNCOMPROMISINGLY IN FAVOR OF THE AMERICAN SYSTEM OF PROTECTION. We protest against its destruction, as proposed by the President and his party. . . . THE PROTECTIVE SYSTEM MUST BE MAINTAINED. . . . We DENOUNCE THE MILLS BILL as destructive to the general business, the labor, and the farming interests of the country, and we HEARTILY ENDORSE THE CONSISTENT AND PATRIOTIC ACTION of the Republican representatives in Congress in opposing its passage. We condemn the proposition of the Democratic party to PLACE WOOL ON THE FREE LIST. . . . The Republican party would EFFECT ALL NEEDED REDUCTION OF THE NATIONAL REVENUE BY REPEALING THE TAXES UPON TOBACCO, . . . and the TAX UPON SPIRITS used in the arts and for mechanical purposes, and by such REVISION OF THE TARIFF LAWS as will tend to CHECK IMPORTS of such articles as are produced by our people, . . . and RELEASE FROM IMPORT DUTIES those articles of foreign production (except luxuries) the like of which cannot be produced at home. If there shall STILL REMAIN A LARGER REVENUE than is requisite for the wants of the Government, WE FAVOR THE ENTIRE REPEAL OF INTERNAL TAXES, RATHER THAN THE SURRENDER OF ANY PART OF OUR PROTECTIVE SYSTEM, at the joint behests of the whiskey trust and the agents of foreign manufacturers."—[For the declarations of the two party platforms on Civil-Service reform, see THE CIVIL SERVICE.]—The PROHIBITION NATIONAL CONVENTION, meeting in Indianapolis, May 31, nominated General CLINTON B. FISK of New Jersey for President, and Dr. JOHN A. BROOKS of Missouri for Vice-President. The platform declared that the MANUFACTURE, IMPORTATION, EXPORTATION, AND SALE OF ALCOHOLIC BEVERAGES should be made PUBLIC CRIMES, AND PUNISHED AS SUCH, and that "ANY FORM OF LICENSE, TAXATION, OR REGULATION of the liquor traffic is CONTRARY TO GOOD GOVERNMENT." It called for the IMMEDIATE ABOLITION OF THE INTERNAL-REVENUE SYSTEM, and said that IMPORT DUTIES SHOULD BE SO REDUCED that NO SURPLUS SHALL BE ACCUMULATED in the Treasury. —Various other Presidential tickets, of no great importance, have been nominated. The first was that of the Equal-Rights party; Mrs. BELVA A. LOCKWOOD is the candidate for President, and ALFRED H. LOVE for Vice-President. The United-Labor party nominated ROBERT H. COWDREY of Chicago for President and W. H. T. WAKEFIELD of Kansas for Vice-President; and the Union-Labor party nominated for the two offices, respectively, A. J. STREETER of Illinois and CHARLES E. CUNNINGHAM of Arkansas. The American party named JAMES LANGDON CURTIS of New York for President and JAMES M. GRIER of Tennessee for Vice-President. The latter declined to be a candidate.—MR. CLEVELAND'S LETTER OF ACCEPTANCE was made public September 10. It was, in effect, a reiteration of the views expressed by him in his last message. He affirmed "the ABSOLUTE DUTY OF LIMITING THE RATE OF TARIFF CHARGES to the NECESSITIES OF A FRUGAL AND ECONOMICAL ADMINISTRATION OF THE GOVERNMENT"; again declared that "UNNECESSARY TAXATION IS UNJUST TAXATION"; and emphasized the commercial distress that would follow the HOARDING OF A SURPLUS IN THE TREASURY VAULTS. He said: "WE HAVE ENTERED UPON NO CRUSADE OF FREE TRADE. The reform we seek to inaugurate is predicated upon the UTMOST CARE FOR ESTABLISHED INDUSTRIES AND ENTERPRISES, a jealous REGARD FOR THE INTERESTS OF AMERICAN LABOR, and a sincere desire to RELIEVE THE COUNTRY from the injustice and danger of a CONDITION WHICH THREATENS EVIL TO ALL THE PEOPLE OF THE LAND."—MR. HARRISON'S LETTER appeared two days later. He devoted the greater part of it to a discussion of the tariff. "THE ISSUE," he said, "CANNOT NOW BE OBSCURED. It is NOT A CONTEST BETWEEN SCHEDULES, BUT BETWEEN WIDE-APART PRINCIPLES." He contended that the MILLS BILL WAS A STEP TOWARD FREE TRADE; and "the important question is not so much the length of the step as the direction of it." He said that the Democratic position was an ASSAULT UPON THE PROTECTIVE SYSTEM, while "the Republican party holds that a PROTECTIVE TARIFF IS CONSTITUTIONAL, WHOLESOME, AND NECESSARY. We do not offer A FIXED SCHEDULE, BUT A PRINCIPLE." The opponents of protection, he said, had "MAGNIFIED AND NURSED THE SURPLUS," seemingly for the purpose of reconciling the people to the remedy which they proposed. He maintained that the existence of a surplus did not require the ABANDONMENT OR IMPAIRMENT OF THE PROTECTIVE SYSTEM, nor even the entire repeal of the internal taxes, and declared that the SURPLUS NOW IN THE TREASURY should be USED IN THE PURCHASE OF BONDS. On other topics, Mr. Harrison followed the platform, article by article, giving to each his approval.

THE ADMINISTRATION.—The most important action taken by THE ADMINISTRATION, during the half-year ending with October 1, was the nomination of the Hon. MELVILLE W. FULLER of Chicago to be CHIEF JUSTICE OF THE SUPREME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES. The nomination was made on April 30, but it was not confirmed by the Senate until July 20. Mr. Fuller was

a leading member of the Chicago bar, and had been a member of the Illinois Constitutional Convention and of the Legislature of that State; and NO VALID OBJECTION TO HIS CONFIRMATION was apparent, except that he was a Democrat. The Senate Judiciary Committee, on July 2, REPORTED THE MATTER "WITHOUT RECOMMENDATION." The Senate finally CONFIRMED THE NOMINATION BY A VOTE OF 41 TO 20. All the Democratic Senators voted for confirmation, and the following Republicans: Messrs. Farwell, Cullom, Cameron, Quay, Frye, Hale, Davis, Jones, Riddleberger, and Mitchell. Speeches in opposition to confirmation were made by Senators Edmunds, Evarts, and Stewart; and Mr. Fuller was defended by Senators Farwell and Cullom, both Republicans.—PRESIDENT CLEVELAND WROTE A LETTER to the Tammany Society of New York, on the occasion of its celebration of the Fourth of July, reiterating the sentiments of his last message, and insisting that the COST OF THE GOVERNMENT should be LIMITED BY FRUGALITY, and an end made of the "USELESS AND DANGEROUS SURPLUS IN THE NATIONAL TREASURY."—The President, on May 9, nominated ROBERT B. ROOSEVELT of New York to be MINISTER TO THE NETHERLANDS; the nomination was confirmed a few days later.—The report of the COMMISSIONER OF PENSIONS, for the year ending June 30, showed that there had been ADDED TO THE PENSION ROLLS 60,252 names (the largest annual increase in the history of the bureau), making a total of 452,557 pensioners; 15,730 names were dropped from the rolls, on account of death and for various other causes, leaving a NET INCREASE OF 46,650. The AMOUNT OF PENSIONS PAID during the year was $78,775,862, an increase over the previous year of $5,308,280. The amount paid in pensions since 1861 has been $963,086,444.—A NEW TREATY OF FRIENDSHIP, COMMERCE, AND NAVIGATION WITH PERU was ratified by the Senate on May 10.—In June, the Secretary of War sent to the Senate a TRANSCRIPT OF THE ARMY RETIRED LIST from its creation, in 1861, to March, 1888. The aggregate of payments to retired officers during that time was $16,530,000. The list contained 809 names.—The President, in September, nominated LAMBERT TREE, Minister to Belgium, to be Minister to Russia, to succeed George V. N. Lothrop, resigned, and JOHN G. PARKHURST of Michigan to be Minister to Belgium.—On September 26, JOHN H. OBERLY, one of the Civil-Service Commissioners, was nominated to be COMMISSIONER OF INDIAN AFFAIRS, to succeed J. D. C. Atkins, resigned.—The PEOPLE OF DAKOTA addressed a petition to the President, in August, urgently requesting him to send to Congress a special message in favor of the ADMISSION OF NORTH DAKOTA AND SOUTH DAKOTA as States.—A treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation, between the United States and the Tonga Islands, was proclaimed by President Cleveland on September 18.—Two reports of the UTAH COMMISSION were filed with the Secretary of the Interior in the last week of September. The majority renewed its previous recommendation that Utah should not be admitted to the Union until the Mormons manifest by their acts that they have ABANDONED POLYGAMY, and then not until an AMENDMENT, shall have been made to the NATIONAL CONSTITUTION, PROHIBITING THE PRACTICE OF POLYGAMY. The report said that the Mormon Church is committed to a policy which, if successful, will prove destructive to the public-school system of Utah. The minority reported that apart from sexual offences, which are decidedly on the decrease, the Mormon people of Utah will COMPARE FAVORABLY with other communities for peace, good order, sobriety, honesty, and industry. This report opposed any FURTHER RESTRICTIVE LEGISLATION by Congress, but recommended a Constitutional amendment prohibiting polygamy.

THE WORK OF CONGRESS.—The FIRST SESSION OF THE FIFTIETH CONGRESS has already been the LONGEST ON RECORD, and no date for adjournment has yet been fixed. The session has not been fruitful of wise legislation in proportion to its length. The acts of greatest national importance, which have become laws since April 1, are as follows: The BOND-PURCHASE BILL, which declared that the authority given to the President, in 1881, to purchase bonds with the surplus in the Treasury, was intended to be a PERMANENT PROVISION OF THE LAW.—A RIVER-AND-HARBOR BILL appropriating $22,227,000. This is the LARGEST APPROPRIATION EVER MADE FOR THIS PURPOSE. The bill first passed the House, carrying an appropriation of $19,902,783. The Senate increased the appropriation to $22,474,783. The conference committees reduced this to the sum already stated. The President PERMITTED THE BILL TO BECOME A LAW WITHOUT HIS SIGNATURE.—A bill making EIGHT HOURS A DAY'S WORK FOR LETTER-CARRIERS, which took effect about midsummer.—INTERNATIONAL MARINE CONFERENCE. The bill on this subject authorizes the President to invite the MARINE NATIONS OF THE WORLD to send delegates to a conference, the object of which shall be to DEVISE MEANS FOR SECURING GREATER SAFETY FOR LIFE AND PROPERTY AT SEA. The President was empowered to appoint six delegates, and the time and place of meeting were left to his discretion. NO ACTION HAS YET BEEN TAKEN by him.—On June 1, while General SHERIDAN was very ill, and his death was supposed to be not far distant, a bill REVIVING THE RANK OF GENERAL OF THE ARMY, for his benefit, became a law, and his commission was duly signed. With his death, the rank of both General and Lieutenant-

General expired.—There was PROLONGED FILLIBUSTERING IN THE HOUSE, beginning April 4 and lasting till April 12, against the bill to REFUND THE DIRECT TAX imposed on the States in 1861. The States in rebellion never paid the tax, and the bill proposed to refund the amount of $17,359,685 to such States as responded to the Government's demand. The Democrats availed themselves of every device to prevent action from being taken. They were successful. As an OFFSET TO THEIR TACTICS, it was proposed, in the Senate, to COMPEL THE SOUTHERN STATES to pay to the Government their share of this tax, amounting, without interest, to $2,640,314.—The House Committee on Education reported a SUBSTITUTE FOR THE BLAIR EDUCATIONAL BILL. It provided for the distribution of the proceeds of public-land sales, to the amount of $8,000,000 a year, among the States and Territories, in proportion to the number of persons of scholastic age. It was not passed.—A bill for the ADMISSION OF SOUTH DAKOTA as a State was passed by the Senate, April 19, by 26 to 23, divided strictly on party lines.—INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT. The Chace Bill was passed by the Senate, May 9, by a vote of 35 to 10. The negative votes were cast by Democrats. The IMPORTANT FEATURE OF THE BILL is that it strikes from the existing law the words "citizens of the United States, or residents thereof." Action by the House on this bill has been postponed till the next session.—The House, on May 21, passed a bill ESTABLISHING A DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, to be under the control of a Secretary of Agriculture, and providing that the WEATHER BUREAU BE TRANSFERRED thereto from the War Department. The Senate, on September 21, passed the bill, after striking out the section transferring the Weather Bureau.—The PUBLIC-LAND BILL, which passed the House in June, is an important measure. It REPEALS THE PREEMPTION AND TIMBER-CULTURE LAWS, and makes provision for the disposal of the different classes of land.—President Cleveland has continued his custom of examining private pension bills with great care, and has VETOED A CONSIDERABLE NUMBER of these measures. His course aroused opposition on the part of many Republicans, in and out of Congress, and, on May 14, Senator Stewart offered an AMENDMENT TO THE CONSTITUTION, reducing from two-thirds to a majority, the vote necessary to override Presidential vetoes. On June 28, Mr. Davis, chairman of the Senate's Committee on Pensions, presented a REPORT ON PRESIDENT CLEVELAND'S VETOES. The report said that, since May 8, 1886, private pension bills to the number of 136 had been vetoed, in the great majority of cases because the President thought that Congress had erred in its judgment upon questions of fact. It was declared that he could not examine all the documentary evidence in each case, and that his judgment must be based on the report of some subordinate in the Bureau of Pensions.—A resolution instructing the Committee on Inter-State Commerce to inquire into the methods by which, under certain rulings of the Treasury Department, Canadian railways are enabled to DEPRIVE AMERICAN RAILWAYS OF BUSINESS rightfully belonging to them, but which they are unable to retain on account of the operations of the Inter-State-Commerce Act, was adopted by the Senate on August 3.—A bill to REGULATE TELEGRAPH BUSINESS was passed by the Senate on August 10. It gives the Inter-State-Commerce Commission authority to INQUIRE INTO THE MANAGEMENT OF THE BUSINESS OF TELEGRAPH COMPANIES.—Two bills for the REGULATION OF TRUSTS have been brought forward in the Senate. One, introduced by Mr. Cullom, proposes the seizure and forfeiture of all shares of stock, and all property, used in furtherance of the purpose of trusts. That of Mr. Sherman declares all arrangements, contracts, agreements, trusts, or combinations between persons or corporations, made with a view, or which tend, to PREVENT FULL AND FREE COMPETITION, to be AGAINST PUBLIC POLICY, AND UNLAWFUL AND VOID. A fine of not more than $10,000, or imprisonment for a term of not more than five years, is prescribed.—The House, on August 23, reversed its action in regard to paying the FRENCH SPOLIATION CLAIMS, and struck out the appropriation of $750,000 which it had previously ordered to be inserted in the Deficiency Appropriation Bill.—A Constitutional amendment was offered in the House, on May 14, EXTENDING THE TERM OF OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT AND VICE-PRESIDENT to six years, and making the President INELIGIBLE FOR A SECOND TERM.

REVENUE REFORM.—Considerable time was taken up, in both branches of Congress, in discussing the question of REVENUE REFORM. The Mills Tariff Bill was introduced in the House on April 17. It was subsequently decided that the majority and minority should each be entitled to eight-and-one-half days for the general debate. The debate closed on May 19, over a hundred speeches having been made. The bill was then taken up and considered, section by section, in Committee of the Whole. The most interesting feature of this part of the handling of the measure was the CONTEST OVER FREE WOOL. On this the vote stood: 120 in favor of putting wool on the free list; 102 against it. The minority was composed of every Republican present and three Democrats—Foran and Wilkins of Ohio, and Sowden of Pennsylvania. The debate on the bill was closed on July 19, and, on July 21, THE MEASURE WAS PASSED BY A VOTE OF 162 TO 149. Three Republicans, Fitch of New York, Brower of North Carolina, and Nelson of Minnesota, and two so-called in-

dependent Republicans, Anderson of Iowa and Hopkins of Virginia, voted with the majority. Four Democrats, Bliss, Merriman, and Greenman of New York, and Sowden of Pennsylvania, voted with the Republicans against the bill.—The Senate Committee on Finance, as early as May 15, decided on the appointment of a sub-committee to consider the tariff question, give hearings, etc. The sub-committee was made up of Senators Allison, Aldrich, Hiscock, Beck, and Harris (the last two being Democrats). The Republican Senators held a caucus, on July 25, and decided to prepare and adopt a BILL REVISING THE TARIFF AND THE INTERNAL REVENUE. A good many persons interested in the tariff were heard by the sub-committee, which, on September 25, submitted to the Finance Committee a SUBSTITUTE FOR THE MILLS BILL. Its provisions were not made public, but it is understood that a reduction in the revenue of about $65,000,000 is effected. Nearly one-half of this was credited to the reduction of 50 per cent. in the duty on sugar, and about as much more to the entire repeal of the tobacco tax.—MR. MILLS'S ESTIMATE OF THE EFFECT OF HIS BILL, as passed by the House, was that it would REDUCE THE CUSTOM DUTIES by $50,000,000, and that the REDUCTION IN THE INTERNAL REVENUE (the separate bill relating to that branch of the subject having been incorporated in the main measure) would reach $22,000,000.

THE FISHERIES TREATY.—The report of the Committee on Foreign Relations, in regard to the FISHERIES TREATY, was laid before the Senate, in executive session, on May 7. The report was STRONGLY ADVERSE TO THE TREATY, and presented an elaborate array of reasons why it should be rejected. A MINORITY REPORT IN FAVOR OF THE TREATY was also offered. The committee was divided strictly on party lines. On May 18 it was decided to discuss the treaty in open session. A prolonged debate followed, in the course of which many effective speeches were made. Finally, on August 21, THE SENATE REJECTED THE TREATY BY A VOTE OF 30 TO 27. A two-thirds' majority was needed to ratify it. All the votes in favor of the treaty were cast by Democrats; all those against it by Republicans.—The rejection of the treaty was followed by an UNEXPECTED MOVE ON THE PART OF THE PRESIDENT. On August 23 he sent to Congress a message, asking for an ENLARGEMENT OF THE POWERS CONFERRED ON HIM by the Retaliation Act, passed by the Forty-ninth Congress, so as to give him authority to STOP THE TRANSSHIPMENT OF CANADIAN GOODS, IN BOND, ACROSS UNITED STATES TERRITORY, unless Canada should allow United States fishermen to transship across Canadian territory. To carry this plan into effect would visit upon Canada the SEVEREST FORM OF RETALIATION. The President was bitterly denounced for his action, by his opponents, and his message was pronounced a BID FOR THE IRISH VOTE. A bill giving the President the powers requested was passed by the House, September 8, by a vote of 176 to 4, the affirmative votes being given by 103 Democrats and 73 Republicans. In the Senate, the bill was sent to the Committee on Foreign Affairs, which, on September 20, referred it to a sub-committee, consisting of Messrs. Sherman, Evarts, and Morgan.—Senator Sherman, on September 17, introduced a resolution instructing the Committee on Foreign Affairs to inquire into THE STATE OF THE RELATIONS of the United States with Great Britain and Canada, and report, at the next session, such measures as are expedient to PROMOTE FRIENDLY COMMERCIAL AND POLITICAL INTERCOURSE between those countries and the United States. On the following day, in a speech in support of his resolution, he advocated COMPLETE UNION WITH CANADA, BOTH COMMERCIAL AND POLITICAL. On September 28, Mr. Sherman's resolution was reported by the Committee on Foreign Affairs, without any recommendation whatever. Mr. Sherman asked that it be placed on the calendar. This was interpreted as meaning that NO ACTION ON THE SUBJECT OF RETALIATION would be taken at this session of Congress. —The FISHERIES TREATY WAS RATIFIED by Canada in April, and by Newfoundland in May.

RESTRICTION OF CHINESE IMMIGRATION.—The NEW TREATY WITH CHINA, prohibiting the entrance of Chinese labor into this country for twenty years, which was signed on March 12, was RATIFIED BY THE SENATE on May 7. It had been amended, however, and accordingly had to be returned to China for reacceptance.—On August 8 the Senate passed a bill providing that, after the exchange of ratifications of the pending treaty, it should be UNLAWFUL FOR ANY CHINESE PERSON TO ENTER THE UNITED STATES, excepting Chinese officials, teachers, students, merchants, or travellers for pleasure or curiosity. The bill also provided that no Chinese laborer in the United States should be permitted, after having left, to return, unless he had a lawful wife, child, or parent in the United States, or property therein of the value of $1,000, or debts of like amount due him. This bill passed the House on August 20, and was SIGNED BY THE PRESIDENT on September 13.—Meanwhile, on September 1, a report came to this country, by way of London, that China had REFUSED TO RATIFY THE TREATY. Without waiting for confirmation of this rumor, the House, on September 3, with unseemly haste, passed a NEW EXCLUSION BILL, more rigid than the first. It contained no provision in regard to Chinese students, merchants, travellers, etc. The bill was passed by the Senate, on September 7, in spite of the fact that a despatch had been received from the

United States Minister to China, stating that the treaty had been POSTPONED FOR FURTHER DELIBERATION. A motion to reconsider this action was at once offered, but, after pending till the 17th, it was defeated by a vote of 21 to 20. The bill went to the President on September 21. On the same day DEFINITE NEWS WAS RECEIVED that THE CHINESE GOVERNMENT HAD REJECTED THE TREATY. On October 1 President Cleveland sent a message to Congress, announcing his APPROVAL OF THE EXCLUSION BILL. The message contained an elaborate explanation of the circumstances leading to the negotiation of the treaty, together with an account of all previous legislation on the subject. The bill approved on September 13, he said, was intended to supplement the treaty, and it was approved in the confident expectation of an early exchange of ratifications of the treaty. The amendments to the treaty had been accepted by the Chinese Minister at Washington, on the ground that they did not alter the terms of the convention. It was also explained that China had proposed amendments that would practically place the execution of the treaty beyond the control of the United States. While approving the bill, the President RECOMMENDED THE ENACTMENT OF A LAW providing that Chinese laborers, who had embarked on their return to the United States before the passage of this law, should be permitted to enter this country, if provided with the proper certificates. He also suggested the propriety of appropriating $276,619.75 to indemnify innocent Chinamen who have suffered from outrages committed by lawless persons in the Northwest. This indemnity formed part of the rejected treaty.

THE CIVIL SERVICE.—During the period under review, the cause of CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM has not made so satisfactory progress as its friends would have been pleased to see. Many of the President's firmest supporters have been compelled to admit that he has FAILED TO CARRY OUT HIS PLEDGES. Nevertheless, some notable steps in the direction of IMPROVING THE CIVIL SERVICE have been taken.—On June 30 an executive order was issued by the President, extending the classified service to a large number of employees in Washington who had not previously been included in it. By this change, the only persons in the District of Columbia exempted from the operations of the rules are unskilled laborers receiving less than $720 a year, and officials whose appointment must be confirmed by the Senate.—The annual meeting of the NATIONAL CIVIL-SERVICE-REFORM LEAGUE was held in New York on May 30. The League adopted a statement which declared that "the SCOPE OF THE CLASSIFIED SERVICE has been somewhat enlarged, and that the rules and regulations have been REVISED AND IMPROVED." "But," the statement continued, "in many instances, the forms of the Civil-Service-Reform law have been so abused, by appointees of the Administration who are not in sympathy with reform, as to bring about WIDESPREAD DISTRUST IN REFORM METHODS. . . . The League reaffirms its declaration of last year, that the change in the unclassified service is so great as to forecast its PRACTICALLY COMPLETE PARTISAN RECONSTRUCTION by the close of the Administration." Various matters were noted which, it was declared, "SERIOUSLY DISCREDIT THE CAUSE OF REFORM, and MERIT THE PUBLIC CONDEMNATION which they have received." The League's statement further condemned the laws which limit the tenure of inferior officers to four years, as a "PROLIFIC SOURCE OF INTRIGUE AND CORRUPTION," and demanded their repeal. Mr. GEORGE WILLIAM CURTIS was again elected president of the League. In his address, he strongly urged the adoption of two important measures: the REPEAL OF THE FOUR-YEARS' LAW, and an amendment to the Constitution EXTENDING THE TERM OF THE PRESIDENCY, and making the PRESIDENT INELIGIBLE FOR A SECOND TERM.—At the annual meeting of the New York Civil-Service Association, May 7, the report of the Executive Committee stated that they had reached a point where it was NECESSARY TO "MARK TIME," and that there had been a considerable revival of the "NEFARIOUS BUSINESS" OF POLITICAL ASSESSMENTS. Referring to the work in the State at large, the report said: "We cannot say that matters show as favorable an aspect as at the last annual meeting."—The Union-League Club of New York, on May 10, adopted resolutions setting forth that "the CAUSE OF CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM has met with a SERIOUS SET-BACK during the administration of the present Executive."—The platform of the Republican party says on the subject of the Civil Service: "The men who abandoned the Republican party in 1884, and continue to adhere to the Democratic party, have deserted not only the cause of honest government, of sound finance, of freedom, of purity of the ballot, but ESPECIALLY HAVE DESERTED THE CAUSE OF REFORM IN THE CIVIL SERVICE. We will not fail to keep our pledges because they have broken theirs, or because their candidate have broken his. We, therefore, repeat our declaration of 1884, to wit: 'The REFORM OF THE CIVIL SERVICE, auspiciously begun under the Republican Administration, should be completed by the FURTHER EXTENSION OF THE REFORM SYSTEM, already established by law, to all the grades of the service to which it is applicable. The SPIRIT AND PURPOSE OF THE REFORM should be observed in ALL EXECUTIVE APPOINTMENTS, and all laws at variance with the object of existing reform legislation should be repealed, to the end that the DANGERS TO FREE INSTITUTIONS

which lurk in the power of official patronage, may be wisely and effectually avoided.' "—The Democratic platform dismisses the matter briefly, thus: "HONEST REFORM IN THE CIVIL SERVICE has been INAUGURATED AND MAINTAINED BY PRESIDENT CLEVELAND, and he has brought the public service to the HIGHEST STANDARD OF EFFICIENCY, not only by rule and precept, but by the example of his own UNTIRING AND UNSELFISH ADMINISTRATION OF PUBLIC AFFAIRS."—On July 23, the President transmitted to Congress the FOURTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE CIVIL-SERVICE COMMISSION. In the accompanying message, he summarized the report by saying that, during the time covered by the report, 15,852 persons were examined for admission in the classified Civil Service, in all its branches, of whom 10,746 passed the examination, and 5,106 failed. Of those who passed, 2,977 were applicants for admission to the departmental service at Washington, 2,547 were examined for admission to the customs service, and 5,222 for admission to the postal service. During the same period, 547 appointments were made from the eligible lists to the departmental service, 641 to the customs service, and 3,254 to the postal service. After enumerating some of the important changes made in furtherance of reform, the President spoke of the obstacles in its way. "And yet, he added, "these are but the incidents of an advance movement which is RADICAL AND FAR-REACHING. The people are, notwithstanding, to be congratulated upon the progress which has been made, and upon the FIRM, PRACTICAL, AND SENSIBLE FOUNDATION UPON WHICH THIS REFORM NOW RESTS." The Commission's report stated that there had not been, since the change of parties, ANY DISMISSALS, in any branch of the classified service, AVOWEDLY FOR PARTISAN REASONS, and that the DEMORALIZING METHODS OF THE PATRONAGE SYSTEM of appointments have been replaced, within the classified service, by the BETTER METHODS OF THE LAW.—In April, the Civil-Service-Reform Association of Maryland made a report to the National Civil-Service-Reform League, on the PARTISAN ACTIVITY SHOWN BY OFFICE-HOLDERS at the primary elections in July, 1887. The document stated that the Administration had not apparently felt or expressed any dissatisfaction at the conduct of these men.—Postmaster-General Dickinson, early in June, wrote to the President, formally protesting against the proposition of the Civil-Service Commission to EXTEND THE CLASSIFIED SERVICE so as to include the railway mail service.

TEMPERANCE REFORM.—The HIGH-LICENSE BILL passed by the New York Assembly, just before the closing of the last RECORD, was ADOPTED BY THE SENATE, April 26, by a vote of 17 to 15. All of the affirmative, and five of the negative, votes were cast by Republicans. The BILL WAS VETOED BY GOVERNOR HILL, May 9. By this action he won the support of all the liquor-dealers in the State, who were unanimously in favor of his renomination and reëlection. His reasons for the veto were exceedingly flimsy. —A PROHIBITION AMENDMENT TO THE CONSTITUTION was passed by the Legislature of New Jersey, in April.—The Anti-Saloon Republicans, meeting in a National Conference, May 3, "urgently asked" the Republican National Convention to "incorporate in their platform a declaration of principles of HOSTILITY TO THE SALOON, as clear and emphatic as the English language can make it." The response to this request was a resolution of sympathy with "all wise and well-directed efforts for the promotion of temperance and morality."—The Pennsylvania Supreme Court, on May 7, SUSTAINED THE NEW HIGH-LICENSE LAW of that State.—On the same day, the Supreme Court of Missouri rendered a decision PROHIBITING THE SALE OF ALL INTOXICATING LIQUORS ON SUNDAYS, in St. Louis. The law had previously been applicable to the rest of the State.—The Supreme Court of Michigan, on May 18, gave a unanimous decision PRONOUNCING UNCONSTITUTIONAL THE LOCAL-OPTION LAW enacted a little over a year before. The decision was based on the fact that the provision of the Constitution that no law shall embrace more than one object, had been plainly violated. Thirty-five of the eighty-three counties in the State had already voted in favor of local prohibition. —That PROHIBITION IS A FARCE IN RHODE ISLAND is shown by the reports of the Internal-Revenue Collector for that district, made in July, which stated that Federal licenses had been issued to 1,207 retail and 30 wholesale liquor-dealers, 5 rectifiers, and 3 brewers, and to 30 retail and 16 wholesale dealers in malt liquors only. The fees amount to about $40,000. The State gets not a dollar of revenue. —The LOCAL-OPTION AND HIGH-LICENSE LAW passed by the last Legislature in New Jersey, over the veto of Governor Green, was DECLARED CONSTITUTIONAL, IN ALL ITS PARTS, by the Court of Errors and Appeals, on July 31. The judges affirmed the high-license provisions unanimously; on the local-option branch of the law the vote was 8 to 7. Five counties voted, in August and September, on the question of license or no license. Four of them decided against license.

LABOR TROUBLES.—There has been a DIMINUTION IN THE NUMBER OF STRIKES in the last half-year. From time to time, signs of further trouble on the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad have manifested themselves, but there has been no stoppage of business. The strike has not yet been formally declared ended, but the men have been allowed to make such terms as they could with the company. The boycott on the cars of this company, by the engineers of the other railways centring in

Chicago, was terminated April 4. An estimate of the COST OF THE STRIKE, made in May, placed the loss in money on both sides at nearly $3,000,000. At a meeting of locomotive engineers and firemen in New York, June 24, a scheme was presented for the CONSOLIDATION OF ALL LABOR ORGANIZATIONS OF RAILROAD EMPLOYEES. The meeting resolved to continue to give financial aid to the Burlington strikers. Several members of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers and Firemen, including the chairman of the Grievance Committee of each, were arrested, early in July, on the charge of being CONCERNED IN A PLOT TO DESTROY the Burlington Company's property with dynamite.—The former employees of the Reading Railroad Company, on May 8, issued a circular stating that they were in abject want, and asking for employment. They said they were willing to ABANDON ALL LABOR ORGANIZATIONS, if the company would give them another trial.—There was considerable friction between the brewers and their employees, in various parts of the country, in April. It grew, in part, out of the refusal of the employers to deal with the unions, and, in part, out of their determination to ignore the unions, unless the boycott declared by some of the latter against some of the firms should be raised. The matter was adjusted after a little delay.—Most of the iron-mills in the region between Pittsburg and Chicago were closed, on June 30, owing to a dispute about wages.—At a meeting of the Amalgamated Association of Iron-and-Steel-Workers, in Pittsburgh, June 13, a resolution was adopted OPPOSING ANY REDUCTION OF THE PRESENT TARIFF, and unqualifiedly condemning the Mills Bill.—A bill limiting SATURDAY HALF-HOLIDAYS to the months of June, July, August, and September, was passed by the New York Legislature in April; it was vetoed by Governor Hill, on the ground that the law of last year, declaring Saturday afternoon a holiday the year round, had not been tried long enough to be thoroughly tested.—At a convention of railroad engineers in St. Louis, in August, it was decided to CONFEDERATE THE BROTHERHOODS of engineers, firemen, switchmen, and brakemen.

COURT DECISIONS.—On April 9 the Supreme Court of the United States decided that the law of Pennsylvania FORBIDDING THE MANUFACTURE AND SALE OF OLEOMARGARINE was constitutional. The Court held that it was entirely within the police powers of the State to protect the public health, and that the question whether the manufacture of oleomargarine may not involve the public health, in such a way as to REQUIRE THE SUPPRESSION OF THE BUSINESS, belongs to the legislative department to determine.—Daniel Drawbaugh, early in May, filed a petition in the United States Supreme Court, asking for a REHEARING IN THE TELEPHONE-PATENT CASES.—In a test case on the QUESTION OF WOMAN SUFFRAGE in Washington Territory, a decision was rendered, May 24, to the effect that the LAW EXTENDING THE FRANCHISE TO WOMEN WAS UNCONSTITUTIONAL.—The PROCEEDINGS AGAINST JACOB SHARP, under indictment for bribery, and at large on bail (the Court of Appeals having ordered a new trial), were ended by the death of Sharp, April 5, from old age and the strain to which he had been subjected. He was 71 years old. In the case of Thomas B. Kerr, indicted for bribery in the same matter, the jury disagreed, June 2, standing 8 to 4 for conviction.

THE INDIANS.—On March 29 President Cleveland wrote a letter in answer to strictures passed by the Philadelphia Methodist-Episcopal Conference on "the recent action of the Government in EXCLUDING THE USE OF NATIVE LANGUAGES IN THE EDUCATION OF THE INDIANS, and especially the exclusion of the Dakota Bible among those tribes where it was formerly used." He quoted the rules of the Indian Bureau on the subject, and pointed out that ONLY THE USE OF TEXT-BOOKS IN THE VERNACULAR is prohibited in the Government schools. A knowledge of the English language he considered of the highest importance in civilizing the Indians, and preparing them for contact with the world. There need be no fear, he said, that, in the execution of the rules referred to, there would be any interference with "the plans of those who sensibly desire the IMPROVEMENT AND WELFARE OF THE INDIANS."—Under a law passed in May, the President was authorized to appoint a commission to make an agreement for the PURCHASE OF ABOUT 11,000,000 ACRES (about one-half) of the SIOUX RESERVATION, in order to permit the building of railroads through that region. The provisions of the act gave the Sioux absolute freedom to decide whether they should sell the land, and it was stipulated that there must be a THREE-FOURTHS' VOTE IN FAVOR OF THE PLAN, to make it binding. The Commission visited the reservation in the last of July. Some of the most powerful Sioux chiefs resisted the project, and THE COMMISSION WAS UNSUCCESSFUL in its efforts. A general council between the Commission, the Indian agents, and the leading chiefs was held during the last week in September. The Indians proposed certain MODIFICATIONS IN THE BILL, but the Commissioners had no authority to make any change in the terms fixed by Congress. It was arranged that delegations from all the Sioux agencies should visit Washington and present their wishes to the Government.—The annual conference of the FRIENDS OF THE INDIAN was held at Lake Mohonk, beginning September 26. It ADOPTED A PLATFORM urging the Government to establish courts for the special use of the Indians; asking Congress for favora-

ble consideration of the Thayer Bill, pending in the Senate; calling on the Department of the Interior to furnish primary and secular schools for the education of Indian children, the education therein to be compulsory, and the teachers' tenure of office permanent; and appealing to the churches to supplement the work of the Government to the largest possible extent.

STATE LEGISLATION.—A bill providing for a REFORM IN ELECTION METHODS was passed by the New York Legislature in May. Its principal provisions related to the PRINTING OF BALLOTS BY THE STATE and to SECRECY IN THE OPERATION OF VOTING. The measure was heartily commended by all friends of an honest and untrammelled ballot. It was opposed in the Legislature by none but Democrats. A Democratic State Convention, meeting soon after its passage, unequivocally condemned it, and, on June 11, GOVERNOR HILL VETOED IT, on the ground that it interfered with the guaranteed rights of voters, and because it contained other important defects. The bill was LARGELY BASED ON THE AUSTRALIAN SYSTEM OF VOTING.—A SIMILAR BILL WAS ENACTED BY THE LEGISLATURE OF MASSACHUSETTS, and became a law.—A ballot law less comprehensive than either of the foregoing, but notable as the FIRST APPLICATION OF THE PRINCIPLE OF BALLOT-DISTRIBUTION BY THE STATE, went into effect in Wisconsin in the spring. Its practical operation demonstrated that the NEW SYSTEM POSSESSES DECIDED ADVANTAGES over the old method of voting.—A bill ABOLISHING HANGING FOR MURDERS committed after January 1, 1889, and SUBSTITUTING DEATH BY ELECTRICITY, which was passed by the Legislature of New York, became a law, by the addition of the Governor's signature, on June 4. This is the FIRST ACTION OF THE KIND EVER TAKEN.

STATE ELECTIONS.—The State election in RHODE ISLAND was held on April 4. The Republicans were successful throughout, Royal C. Taft being elected Governor by a majority of 1,984. A special contest was made by independent voters against the candidate for Lieutenant-Governor, Enos Lapham; but his majority was only 273 less than that of the head of the ticket. It was charged that money was freely used to compass this result.—The Republicans won a surprising victory in OREGON, in June, the plurality for the Congressional candidate being over 7,000; a very large Republican majority in the Legislature was returned.—Republican gains were also made in VERMONT, September 4, the plurality for Governor and other officers being the largest ever recorded.—The election in Maine, September 10, excited considerable interest. The Democratic candidate for Governor was the Hon. William L. Putnam, one of the Commissioners who negotiated the Fisheries Treaty rejected by the Senate. A personal canvass of the State was made by Mr. Blaine, who spoke in many towns and cities. The Republican ticket was successful by a plurality of 18,495, a slight falling-off, as compared with 1884; all the Republican members of Congress were reëlected.

MISCELLANEOUS.—Professor G. STANLEY HALL of Johns Hopkins University accepted the presidency of Clark University, at Worcester, Massachusetts, in May.—Dr. F. A. P. BARNARD resigned the presidency of Columbia College, May 7.—On May 23, Professor HARRISON E. WEBSTER was elected president of Union College.—The Rev. Dr. THOMAS S. HASTINGS, on reconsidering the matter, decided to accept the post of president of the Union Theological Seminary, New York.—The corner-stone of the CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY BUILDING, at Washington, was laid by Cardinal Gibbons, May 24.—On the Queen's birthday (May 24), the QUEEN VICTORIA NIAGARA-FALLS PARK, corresponding to the State Reservation on the American side, was thrown open to the public.—The one-hundredth anniversary of the BEGINNING OF CIVIL GOVERNMENT WEST OF THE ALLEGHANY MOUNTAINS was celebrated at Marietta, Ohio, beginning July 15. Various other centennial celebrations have taken place in Ohio.—The twenty-fifth anniversary of the BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG was the occasion of a notable celebration on July 1, 2, and 3. A feature of the celebration was an oration by Mr. George William Curtis.—An EPIDEMIC OF YELLOW FEVER broke out in Jacksonville, Florida, in August. Up to October 1, there had been 2,725 cases of the fever, and 263 deaths.

OBITUARY.—The deaths of the following well-known Americans have occurred in the past six months: BENJAMIN HARRIS BREWSTER, ex-Attorney General of the United States, April 4, aged 72; ex-United States Senator ROSCOE CONKLING, April 18, aged 59; Rear-Admiral CHARLES STEWART BOGGS, April 22, aged 77; the Right Rev. JOHN HENRY HOBART BROWN, first Bishop of Fond du Lac, May 2, aged 57; JAMES JACKSON JARVES, art-critic, June 28, aged 68; the Rev. EDWARD P. ROE, July 19, aged 50; THOMAS CARNEY, the second Governor of Kansas, July 28, aged 64; General PHILIP HENRY SHERIDAN, August 5, aged 57; CHARLES CROCKER, capitalist, August 14, aged 66; SETH GREEN, fish-culturist, August 20, aged 71; the Right Rev. SAMUEL SMITH HARRIS, Bishop of Michigan, August 21, aged 47; LESTER WALLACK, September 6, aged 68; Professor RICHARD A. PROCTOR, September 12, aged 51.

POLITICAL AND GENERAL.

FOREIGN.

GREAT BRITAIN.—The GOVERNMENT'S HARSH POLICY IN THE MANAGEMENT OF IRELAND has continued to be the subject

of a good deal of criticism, accompanied by a corresponding amount of defence, both within and without Parliament.—Mr. Balfour, Chief Secretary for Ireland, speaking at a banquet, April 11, said that the state of Ireland was INCOMPARABLY BETTER than when he entered office.—On the previous day, Lord Salisbury, in a speech at Carnarvon, Wales, expressed confidence that PROSPERITY WOULD RETURN TO IRELAND, when the people realized the hopelessness of effecting political changes by disregard of the rights of property and of the lives of their neighbors.—Professor Tyndall, in an article published about the same time, made an attack on Mr. Gladstone, and said: "It is a consolation to know that Mr. Gladstone is unlikely again to be in power. He has already done HIS UTMOST TO RUIN THE COUNTRY."—To a Liberal meeting at Rossendale, April 20, Mr. Gladstone sent a letter, saying that the seventy dissidents led by Lord Hartington had done more for the cause of coercion and misgovernment in Ireland than seventy Tories could have done.—The question of INCREASING SENTENCES ON APPEAL, IN IRISH CASES, came up in the House of Commons on April 23 and 24. Mr. Balfour contended that the judges had acted under a statute not eleven years old in England. Mr. Gladstone said that there was no instance of an increase of sentence in England, and that the Government's boast of treating the Irish on a footing of equality was thus disproved. He accused Mr. Balfour of granting the right of appeal, and then practically putting a veto on it. A motion to adjourn on urgency in connection with this matter was defeated—219 to 165.—On May 19 Mr. Gladstone replied to the statement of the Chief Secretary that the practice of increasing sentences on appeal had been resorted to in Ireland while the Liberals were in power. He said that the practice was CONTRARY TO THE SPIRIT OF CRIMINAL JURISPRUDENCE. If it had been indulged in while the Liberals were in authority, it was without his knowledge. He urged Mr. Balfour to continue his researches, and so bring to light new proofs of the necessity and advantage of investing the Irish with power over their own affairs.—An address, signed by 3,730 Dissenting ministers, was presented to Mr. Gladstone on May 9; they expressed sympathy with him in his efforts to reconcile England and Ireland. Mr. Gladstone said, in reply, that the Government knew that THE NATION WAS WITH HOME RULE, and they, therefore, guided the affairs of Parliament so as to delay the time when a Ministry pledged to grant Home Rule to Ireland would be in power.—On May 21 an address signed by 1,200 Quakers, in favor of Home Rule, was presented to Mr. Gladstone.—In the House of Commons, June 25, Mr. John Morley moved to CENSURE THE GOVERNMENT FOR ITS ADMINISTRATION OF THE IRISH CRIMES ACT, as calculated to undermine respect for the law, estrange the people of Ireland, and prove injurious to the interests of the Empire. An animated debate occurred on that and the following day. The motion was rejected—366 to 273.—In an interview published in the *Pall Mall Gazette*, July 10, Mr. Parnell, for the first time, unfolded the plan of the Irish Nationalists with regard to the English Parliament under Home-Rule conditions. His idea was that England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales should EACH HAVE A PARLIAMENT FOR THE ADMINISTRATION OF LOCAL AFFAIRS. The House of Lords would be replaced by a CONGRESS OF MEMBERS FROM ALL THE FOUR COUNTRIES, as well as from all the colonies, and this Imperial Parliament would administer all national affairs. Mr. Parnell said that at the next election there would be A MAJORITY OF 120 FOR THE HOME-RULE BILL.—The Irish County-Government Bill was rejected by the House of Commons, April 25, by 282 to 195.—On May 9 the Secretary of State for War received a deputation of Members of Parliament, who presented an address urging the necessity of placing the country in a PROPER STATE OF DEFENCE. The Secretary answered that there was no need of a panic, but that the work of strengthening the defences was being carried on with exceptional activity. Two days later, the *Daily Telegraph*, in an article headed "England in Danger," asserted, ON "THE HIGHEST MILITARY AUTHORITY," that the strength of the ARMY WAS ENTIRELY INSUFFICIENT, that the guns and rifles in use were bad, and that the army stores were lamentably meagre. The situation of the navy was described as ALMOST EQUALLY BAD. The "highest military authority" was supposed to be Lord Wolseley, and much excitement was aroused. Lord Salisbury attacked Lord Wolseley for making what the former termed a "panic-producing speech" at a dinner, about this time, and there were rumors that Lord Wolseley would resign the office of Adjutant-General of the Army. Lord Wolseley answered the Prime Minister in the House of Lords on May 14. He admitted that the present Government had done much toward improving the military defences, but said that, so long as the navy was as weak as at that time, the army could not hold its own, dispersed, as it was, all over the world. The MILITARY FORCES WERE NOT ORGANIZED as they should be; they did not even guarantee the SAFETY OF THE CAPITAL. If a force of 100,000 men succeeded in landing, and were properly handled, there was no reason why they might not TAKE POSSESSION OF THE COUNTRY. Lord Salisbury answered that the statement would be SERIOUSLY INQUIRED INTO. In another speech, he said that, since 1884, the army had been increased from 189,217 men of all arms to 212,470 men, while the expenditures

for the navy had risen from £4,449,000 to £6,611,000.—The LOCAL-GOVERNMENT BILL brought forward on March 19, although opposed by the Liberals on some points, especially in regard to the licensing clauses, so far as they ignored the right of direct control by inhabitants, and created the right of publicans to claim compensation, made FAIR PROGRESS THROUGH PARLIAMENT. On June 9 surprise was caused by the announcement that the Government had decided to ABANDON THE LICENSING CLAUSES. The bill passed the House of Commons amid cheers from both sides.—On June 12 a resolution directed against the "frequent and costly reorganization of the financial and secretarial departments of the Admiralty," although opposed by the Government, was adopted by 113 to 94. Twenty-one Tories voted against the Government. The defeat was INDECISIVE IN A POLITICAL SENSE, but it was noteworthy as the FIRST INSTANCE IN WHICH THE SALISBURY GOVERNMENT WERE ACTUALLY OUTVOTED.—Lord Salisbury, on June 18, introduced into the House of Lords a bill to REORGANIZE THAT BODY. It provided that not more than three life-peers should be appointed annually.—The trial of the action brought by Frank Hugh O'Donnell against the London *Times* for libel, in its articles on "Parnellism and Crime," resulted, on June 5, in a verdict for the *Times*. The developments were not so sensational as had been expected; and there were some charges that the SUIT WAS A COLLUSIVE ONE. The trial was followed by explanations in the House of Commons, by Mr. Parnell and others, and, on July 9, Mr. Parnell gave notice that he would submit a motion for the appointment of a committee to INQUIRE INTO THE AUTHENTICITY OF THE LETTERS published by the *Times*, in which he and other Nationalist members were charged with having approved the Phœnix-Park murders. Mr. Parnell's plan was not adopted, but the Government expressed willingness to agree to the APPOINTMENT OF A COMMISSION, consisting wholly of judges, to inquire into all the charges made against Irish members of Parliament by the *Times*. A prolonged debate ensued. Nearly a hundred amendments to the bill introduced by the Government were offered. THE BILL WAS FINALLY PASSED on August 8. Every attempt made by Mr. Parnell and his Liberal allies to narrow the scope of the inquiry was pitilessly defeated. It had previously been announced that the judges composing the Commission would be SIR JAMES HANNEN AND JUSTICES DAY AND SMITH. Mr. Parnell at once took steps to institute, in Scotland, a suit against the *Times* for £50,000 damages for libel. The FIRST MEETING OF THE COMMISSION was held September 17. The Commission decided that it had the right to order the PRODUCTION OF ALL LETTERS AND PAPERS bearing on the case. The inquiry will proceed on October 22.—A bill legalizing MARRIAGE WITH A DECEASED WIFE'S SISTER was passed by the House of Commons on April 18. —It was announced, June 6, that the Irish Land Bill had been abandoned, and that the Government would substitute a bill CONTINUING THE LAND COMMISSION for three years. —THE CHANNEL-TUNNEL PROJECT was again defeated, in the latter part of June, by a majority of nearly two to one.—A proposal to pay SALARIES TO MEMBERS OF PARLIAMENT was rejected, July 7, by 192 to 135.—Mr. Conybeare, M.P., was expelled from the House of Commons for one month, on July 20, for having denounced the Speaker in a newspaper.—PARLIAMENT ADJOURNED on August 11, but will convene again in November.—The PRINCIPAL BYE-ELECTIONS have been those held in Mid-Lanark, Southampton, the Ayr Boroughs, and the Isle of Thanet. In all these the Gladstonians met with success, and in all there were LARGELY INCREASED LIBERAL MAJORITIES.—Further trouble has grown out of attempts to HOLD MEETINGS IN TRAFALGAR SQUARE. In June the courts refused to grant summonses against the Home Secretary and the Chief of the Metropolitan Police for preventing meetings there, on the ground that no right existed for the holding of a public meeting which interfered with the free passage of people through the Square. An attempt to hold a meeting was made, on July 7, but the crowd was kept in motion by a large force of police. There was some disorder, and several arrests were made. There was a similar scene on July 15, although the Government had in the meantime directed the Commissioner of Police to suppress these meetings. —MATTHEW ARNOLD died on April 15, at the age of sixty-six.—The Right Hon. ROBERT EDWARD KING-HARMAN, Parliamentary Under-Secretary for Ireland, and Member of Parliament for the Isle of Thanet, died on June 10. He was about fifty years old, and had sat for, or contested, four different Irish constituencies.—The GOLDEN WEDDING OF MR. AND MRS. GLADSTONE was celebrated on July 25.—Queen Victoria visited Italy in April, spending some time in Florence; she reached Berlin on April 24, and returned to England on the 27th.—The Federation League, on June 7, endorsed the proposal of the Canadian League, that a colonial conference be held, with the object of developing CLOSER COMMERCIAL RELATIONS AMONG THE BRITISH COLONIES.—The final meeting of the SUGAR-BOUNTIES CONFERENCE was held in London, August 30. The convention, which will remain in force ten years after going into operation, on September 1, 1891, was signed by Great Britain, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Spain, Italy, the Netherlands, and Russia. The signature of France was reserved for six months. The countries signing the convention will exclude refined

sugar, molasses, and glucose coming from countries that have not signed it.—The SUEZ-CANAL CONVENTION, neutralizing that waterway, has been finally signed. It slightly increases England's hold on Egypt.

AFFAIRS IN IRELAND.—In order to test Mr. Balfour's assertion that the NATIONAL LEAGUE WAS A THING OF THE PAST, the Parnellites decided, at the beginning of April, to hold six meetings on Sunday, the 8th, in proclaimed districts. The MEETINGS WERE ONLY PARTLY SUCCESSFUL, the police interfering with them and virtually breaking them up. WILLIAM O'BRIEN, M.P., who spoke at Loughrea, was arrested on April 14. On May 3 he was convicted, under the Crimes Act, and SENTENCED TO THREE MONTHS' IMPRISONMENT.—JOHN DILLON was arrested, April 17, on the charge of inciting tenants not to pay rent. He was convicted, on May 11, and SENTENCED TO SIX MONTHS' IMPRISONMENT, without hard labor. The trial of a second charge against him followed at once, and he was again convicted and sentenced to a like imprisonment. The two sentences, however, were to run concurrently. Mr. Dillon appealed. The sentence was confirmed on June 20, and he was taken to Dundalk Jail. His health was feeble, and he was at once put in the jail infirmary. On September 18 he was released on account of his ill-health.—On April 19 the sentences of several men convicted under the Crimes Act were INCREASED. This excited a good deal of indignation in England and elsewhere. The appeal of Father McFadden, against a doubling of his sentence on appeal, was dismissed, on May 17, the Exchequer Court holding that a County Court had the power to increase a sentence.—Other persons arrested and imprisoned by Mr. Balfour's agents were Patrick O'Brien, M.P.; Thomas Joseph Condon, M.P.; James J. O'Kelly, M.P.; Mayor McHugh of Sligo; John Redmond, M.P.; and William Redmond, M.P. In the case of J. D. Pyne, M.P., who was sentenced for six weeks, the conviction was declared CONTRARY TO LAW. In two important cases sentences were reduced.—A great stir was caused, about April 23, by the announcement that the Pope was about to issue a DECREE CONDEMNING THE PLAN OF CAMPAIGN AND BOYCOTTING. The text of the Papal decree was made public on the 30th. The Nationalist members of Parliament determined that the Plan of Campaign should be CONTINUED, IN SPITE OF THE DECREE, and a National-League meeting at Sligo, May 8, condemned the Pope's rescript. At a banquet given to him by the Eighty Club, May 8, Mr. Parnell said that the Irish Catholics would not allow anybody, however high or influential, to INFLUENCE THEM A JOT IN THEIR POLITICAL DUTY to their country. As for the Plan of Campaign, he was ill when it was instituted, and, although it had benefited thousands and pacified the country, he would then have advised against it, because it contained features inimical to the National Government, and would furnish a pretext for further coercion. Michael Davitt, in a speech at Liverpool, May 13, said that Irishmen were compelled to believe that the rescript was DUE TO ENGLISH INTRIGUES, and that Ireland would not ACCEPT POLITICAL DICTATION FROM ROME. The Parnellite members of Parliament discussed the rescript exhaustively, on May 17, and prepared a manifesto on the subject, which asserted that "we can recognize no right of the Holy See to enterfere with the Irish people in the management of their political affairs." On May 20 a meeting of 6,000 persons was held in Phœnix Park, Dublin, and the manifesto of the Irish members of Parliament was endorsed by acclamation. Archbishop Walsh telegraphed from Rome to Dublin, May 24, that "all apprehension of INTERFERENCE BY THE HOLY SEE IN IRISH POLITICAL AFFAIRS is groundless." At the end of the month the Irish Catholic Archbishops and Bishops adopted resolutions declaring that THE POPE'S DECREE AFFECTED MORALS ONLY, AND DID NOT INTERFERE WITH POLITICS. A PAPAL ENCYCLICAL LETTER was read in the Irish churches on July 11. The Pope asserted that the decree was based upon the most complete information; that, previous to its issuance, he held interviews with Irish Bishops on the subject, and sent a trusted legate to Ireland to report on the true condition of affairs. The Bishops, he said, must remove all misconception, and leave no room for doubt as to the force of the decree. The whole system of the Plan of Campaign and boycotting was condemned as unlawful.—Dublin was proclaimed, under the Crimes Act, on May 20, and Belfast on June 4.—On July 1 the Irish Bishops published a series of resolutions, explaining the land question, and expressing the opinion that, unless Parliament immediately applied a REALLY EFFECTIVE MEASURE to protect tenants from oppressive exactions and arbitrary eviction, the MOST DISASTROUS CONSEQUENCES to public order and the safety of the people would almost inevitably ensue.—The death, in Tullamore Jail, July 8, of JOHN MANDEVILLE, one of Mr. Balfour's prisoners, occasioned considerable excitement, which was intensified by the suicide, on July 20, of Dr. James Ridley, the medical officer in attendance at the jail during Mandeville's incarceration. It was testified that Mandeville had been punished for periods never before recorded. The verdict of the Coroner's jury was that Mandeville's death was due to the "BRUTAL AND UNJUSTIFIABLE TREATMENT" to which he was subjected. An application to the courts to quash the verdict was refused.

CANADA.—On May 22 the House of Commons was prorogued for the last time by the RETIRING GOVERNOR GENERAL, LORD

LANSDOWNE. The following day, over 15,000 persons witnessed the farewell demonstration at Ottawa in his honor, before his departure for England to assume the post of Viceroy of India.—The new Governor General, LORD STANLEY OF PRESTON, arrived in Ottawa June 10.—It was made known, June 24, that Sir CHARLES TUPPER, Minister of Finance, had RESIGNED, and had been appointed High Commissioner for Canada in London. G. E. Foster, Minister of Marine, was made Minister of Finance, and Colonel Tupper, son of Sir Charles, became Minister of Marine and Fisheries.—The official returns of the ACTIVE MILITIA in the Dominion show that it numbers 38,000 men.—Sir Charles Tupper's budget speech, on April 27, pointed out that THE PUBLIC DEBT of $273,000,000 had been increased $75,000,000 since the Canadian Pacific Railway was begun. Yet the revenue from customs and excise had fallen from $23,000,000 in 1883 to $22,000,000 in the current year. The estimated revenue this year was $36,000,000, and the estimated expenditures were $37,000,000. The estimated revenue for 1888–'89 was $36,900,000.—A delegation from Newfoundland was arranged, in June, to conduct negotiations relative to the annexation of that country to Canada.—A large Liberal demonstration was held at Oakville, August 13, and speeches were made in favor of UNRESTRICTED RECIPROCITY.—Something of a sensation was caused, about the middle of September, by a speech by Premier Mercier of Quebec, in favor of the INDEPENDENCE OF THAT PROVINCE. It was said that agents of the Quebec Government were promoting a movement toward ANNEXATION TO THE UNITED STATES.—Sir JOHN ROSE, formerly Canadian Minister of Finance, fell dead, while hunting in the north of Scotland, in the latter part of July. He was sixty-eight years of age.

BRITISH COLONIES.—The Governor of NEW ZEALAND, at the opening of Parliament, May 11, said that the CHINESE IMMIGRATION DIFFICULTY would be a serious one until England and China could come to an agreement on the subject. A bill against Chinese immigration passed the House of Representatives on May 21. The budget was introduced in the General Assembly on May 30. The revenue was estimated at £4,016,000, and the expenditures at £4,061,000.—There was trouble also in NEW SOUTH WALES on the question of EXCLUDING CHINESE IMMIGRANTS. A bill restricting such immigration was introduced in the Colonial Assembly, May 17, and immediately passed to the third reading. The Legislative Council refused to suspend the standing orders, for the purpose of facilitating the passage of the bill. The landing of a number of Chinamen was prevented by the police, but the Supreme Court granted writs of habeas corpus in the cases of those who offered to pay the poll-tax, and ordered their release, on the ground that the Government had NO POWER TO EXCLUDE FOREIGNERS FROM THE COUNTRY.—Governor Loch opened the Centenary Exhibition at Melbourne, VICTORIA, August 1. Seven thousand persons assembled to witness the ceremonies.—A NEW MINISTRY was formed in QUEENSLAND in June, as follows: Premier, Mr. McIlwraith; Lands, Mr. Black; Mines, Mr. Macrossan; Railways, Mr. Nelson. On September 4 it was announced that the Ministry had resigned.

PEACE IN EUROPE.—The European nations are still at peace, and little change can be discerned in their attitude toward one another. Extensive preparations for war, however, are industriously carried on, and it would seem that only a little thing is required to precipitate a crisis. The BULGARIAN QUESTION is yet unsettled; there are some indications that it will be allowed to settle itself. The known warlike disposition of the new Emperor of Germany has given rise to some apprehensions, but the general effect of his visits to the Tsar and to other monarchs is, apparently, in the direction of CONFIRMING PEACEABLE RELATIONS among the different Powers, notwithstanding his activity in bringing his armies to a high state of discipline. Prime-Minister Crispi of Italy, and Count Kálnoky, the Austro-Hungarian Minister of Foreign Affairs, have both visited Prince Bismarck. Italy's occupation of Massowah threatened to provoke a breach with France, and a rupture between France and Austria-Hungary at one time seemed at hand.—Despite many threats that Prince Ferdinand would be forced to quit the Bulgarian throne, he remains undisturbed. An important statement was made, on July 5, in what purported to be "official despatches from St. Petersburg." It was to the effect that, after December 17, the Bulgarians would be allowed to do anything they pleased, and that Russia would "WASH HER HANDS OF THE WHOLE CONCERN." By the end of July, however, there was much talk that a NEW MONARCH FOR BULGARIA was being sought, and that either Prince Waldemar of Denmark or the Duke of Cumberland would be selected. On August 6 it was reported that a conference was about to be held between Germany, Austria, and Italy for the settlement of the Bulgarian trouble. Directly following this came a noteworthy speech by Prime-Minister Salisbury of England, who said that the conviction was stealing over the minds of European statesmen that the BEST POLICY WAS TO LEAVE BULGARIA TO HERSELF. This speech was strongly indicative of peace on the Continent. Meanwhile, Ferdinand has pursued a policy betokening a belief that his tenure is secure. In a speech, on May 9, he repeated his oath that he would lead Bulgaria to the goal marked out for her in history. In August he de-

clared that he would never LEAVE BULGARIA OF HIS OWN ACCORD.—On May 26 Herr Tisza, the Hungarian Prime Minister, made a speech in the Lower House of the Hungarian Diet, in which he reiterated the Government's refusal to take part in the Paris Exhibition in 1889, and spoke of the possibility that the property of Hungarian subjects might be damaged, and the national flag insulted, through the excitability of French popular feeling. The speech AROUSED CONSIDERABLE FEELING IN FRANCE, and was the subject of inquiry in the Chamber of Deputies. Count Kálnoky and Herr Tisza both made haste to assure France that there was NO INTENTION TO OFFEND the French nation.—Signor Crispi's visit to Prince Bismarck took place on August 21. The result of the visit, it was reported, would be to prevent Italy from undertaking an Abyssinian campaign, and to restrain Signor Crispi from further irritating France. On his journey homeward, Signor Crispi was met at Eger by Count Kálnoky. Kálnoky visited Bismarck on September 18. The result of these interviews was to prove that the TRIPLE ALLIANCE REMAINS UNDISTURBED. That powerful coalition is, in itself, perhaps, the strongest argument in favor of peace in Europe.

FRANCE.—The NEW FRENCH CABINET was announced, on April 2, as follows: M. FLOQUET, President of the Council and Minister of the Interior; M. GOBLET, Minister of Foreign Affairs; M. DE FREYCINET, Minister of War; Admiral KRANTZ, Minister of Marine; M. RICARD, Minister of Justice; M. PEYTRAL, Minister of Finance; MM. LOCKROY, Minister of Education; M. LOUBET, Minister of Public Works; M. VIETTE, Minister of Agriculture; M. LEGRAND, Minister of Commerce. On the next day M. Ricard, Loubet, and Legrand retired from the Cabinet, and it was announced that Senator Ferrouillat and M. Deluns-Montaud would become Minister of Justice and Minister of Public Works, respectively.—On April 4 M. Meline, member of the Chamber of Deputies for the Vosges, was elected President of the Chamber.—In the election, on April 8, to fill the vacancy in the Chamber for the Department of the Dordogne, GENERAL BOULANGER was chosen. The result was unexpected. The General had refused to contest the seat, but his friends forwarded his candidacy.—The election in the Department of the Nord, in which General Boulanger was a candidate, occurred on April 15. He received 172,272 votes, against 75,781 for the next highest candidate. The next day the General wrote a letter to the electors of the Nord, saying that the 15th of April "will henceforth be marked in the annals of the country as the date of her TRUE DELIVERANCE."—On his way to the Chamber, April 19, General Boulanger was greeted with great enthusiasm. The Chamber adopted, by a vote of 379 to 177, an order of the day expressing CONFIDENCE IN THE GOVERNMENT. In the course of debate, M. Floquet declared himself an advocate of REVISION OF THE CONSTITUTION.—A committee of eleven members was appointed, April 21, to consider the question of revising the constitution. —The appointment of M. de Freycinet as Minister of War was sharply questioned in the Chamber, on April 23, and a VOTE OF CONFIDENCE in him was passed, 377 to 175. —In the last of April, the Court of Appeals confirmed the sentences of General Caffarel and Mme. Limousin, who were convicted of complicity in the sale of decorations.—President Carnot, accompanied by the Minister of Public Works and the Minister of Public Instruction, on April 25, set out on a tour of France. Considerable enthusiasm was aroused by his presence, and the journey was successful.—In a speech, on April 27, General Boulanger EMPHATICALLY PROTESTED against the charge that he ASPIRED TO A DICTATORSHIP. If the question were raised in the Chamber, he said, he would vote to ABOLISH THE PRESIDENCY.—The Senators of the Extreme Left, at a meeting on May 1, almost unanimously condemned the Boulangist movement.—Municipal elections were held throughout France on May 6. In 361 districts the Republicans were successful, and the Conservatives in 16 districts; in the other districts second ballots were necessary. —The groups of the Right, on May 25, reaffirmed the necessity of a revision of the constitution and a dissolution of Parliament. —M. Floquet, on June 2, informed the committee on the revision of the constitution that it was the opinion of the Cabinet that the present state of home and foreign affairs MADE REVISION INOPPORTUNE. In consequence of this statement, it was announced that the Right would not demand a revision, but a dissolution and an appeal to the country.—On June 4 General Boulanger made a strenuous effort in the direction of revision. He submitted a motion for a revision of the constitution, and said that he would demand urgency therefor. It was notorious, he said, that some Ministers had drawn money from the public treasury, in order to secure electoral votes. In answer to loud cries of dissent, he disclaimed any intention of attacking the present Ministry. M. Floquet, in reply, made a most TELLING SPEECH. He taunted Boulanger by charging him with fearing that he would merit the epithet of the "DO-NOTHING DICTATOR," and accused him of promulgating a manifesto of neo-Cæsarism, and of giving utterance to projects for the future, wherein the glory of Boulanger was the only thing discerned. He said that Boulanger would end in being the Sieyès of a still-born constitution. Boulanger's motion was rejected—377 to 186. Then, by a vote of 335 to 170, it was decided that Premier Floquet's speech should be placarded

throughout France.—The defeat of Paul Déroulède, in the election in the Department of the Charente, June 17, was considered a blow to the pretensions of Boulanger.—The Senate, on June 22, approved a credit of $7,500,000 for the artillery and engineer services.—On June 23 the Ministerial Council decided that it would be impolitic to rescind the decree of expulsion against the Duc d'Aumale, as requested by the French Institute.—A vote of confidence in the Government was passed by the Chamber on July 3 —270 to 157. This was regarded as FORTIFYING THE CABINET'S POSITION until October.—On July 6 it was reported that the police had seized copies of a letter written by the Count of Paris to the Conservative mayors of France, in which he said: "The day is near when we must all unite to reconstitute and establish the Government of France upon a durable basis. . . . A MONARCHY ALONE can restore to you your LOST LIBERTIES, and ESTABLISH ORDER in the communes and in the State."—The surplus in the French Treasury for the first six months in the year amounted to 28,000,000 f. In the Chamber, July 12, General Boulanger proposed the dissolution of the body. His motion was rejected, and he thereupon abruptly RESIGNED HIS SEAT. In the debate, bitter personalities were indulged in between Boulanger and the Premier, the RESULT OF WHICH WAS A CHALLENGE. IN THE DUEL, on the 13th, Boulanger received a SEVERE WOUND IN THE NECK. The result of the meeting was regarded, generally, as hopelessly discrediting Boulanger before the country. In an election in Ardèche, July 22, he was badly defeated. While driving in an open carriage, August 12, five shots were fired at General Boulanger. It was afterward said that the man who did the shooting did not aim at the General. The shooting took place, in the midst of a political fight, at Saint Jean d'Angély. In spite of the seeming subsidence of the craze known as Boulangism, General Boulanger was, on August 19, elected to seats in the Chamber of Deputies in three Departments—Somme, Charente, and the Nord. His majority in Somme was 34,733; in Charente, 15,060; in the Nord, 3,585.—A bill to ABOLISH DUELLING IN FRANCE was introduced in the Chamber of Deputies on July 16. A demand for urgency in its favor was rejected.—The Chamber approved, on July 17, the credit of $70,000,000, asked by the Government for strengthening the naval defences.—A proposition of the Budget Committee to reduce the naval estimates by 5,000,000 f. was resisted by Admiral Krantz, Minister of Marine, and at the end of September his resignation was imminent. M. de Freycinet consented to a reduction of 6,000,000 f. in the army estimates.—On September 29 a council of the Ministers decided to introduce in the Chamber of Deputies, at the coming session, which begins October 15, a bill for the REVISION OF THE CONSTITUTION.—It was announced, on October 1, that the Count of Paris had authorized his adherents to ally themselves with the Boulangists, with a view of carrying the next general elections.—Marshal ÉDMUND LEBŒUF of the French Army died, June 8, in his seventy-ninth year. He served in the Crimean war. In 1869 he became Minister of War. In the Franco-Prussian war he met with a number of defeats, and retired in disgrace.—M. CHARLEMAGNE EMILE DE MAUPAS, who played an important part in the *coup d'état* of Napoleon III., died, June 19, aged sixty-nine.—M. CHARLES THEODORE EUGENE DUCLERC, Jules Ferry's predecessor as Prime Minister, in 1882, died, in July, at the age of seventy-six.—Ex-Marshal FRANÇOIS-ACHILLE BAZAINE died in Madrid, September 23. In 1870 he was sentenced to twenty years' imprisonment for his conduct in the Franco-Prussian war, but he escaped from prison in 1874.

GERMANY.—The reports, in the early part of April, in regard to the HEALTH OF EMPEROR FREDERICK stated that his condition, on the whole, was satisfactory. On the 15th he grew worse, and his condition caused great anxiety. Another relapse occurred on May 1. On June 1 the Emperor went to Potsdam, where he immediately showed signs of improvement.—Meanwhile a MINISTERIAL CRISIS arose. There had previously been some friction between the Emperor and Prince Bismarck, growing out of the proposed marriage between the Princess Victoria and Prince Alexander of Battenberg, and there were rumors that BISMARCK WAS ABOUT TO RESIGN. Toward the end of May, the Emperor rebuked Herr von Puttkamer, Vice-President of the Council of Ministers and Minister of the Interior, for abusing the Government influence at elections. Puttkamer offered to resign. The Emperor refused to promulgate the Quinquennial Landtag Bill (extending the legislative period from three to five years), unless his letter to Puttkamer were published with it. Other Ministers also threatened to resign. Bismarck intervened, and the CRISIS WAS AVERTED. The letter was not published with the Quinquennial law. Herr von Puttkamer's resignation was accepted, and, on June 11, it was announced that Herr Scholz, Minister of Finance, had resigned, and that other resignations were impending.—A MARKED CHANGE FOR THE WORSE took place in the Emperor's condition about June 10. HIS DEATH OCCURRED in the Friedrichskron Palace, at Potsdam, at 11 A. M., on June 15. The CROWN PRINCE SUCCEEDED TO THE THRONE AS WILLIAM II. On the following day the new Emperor issued orders to the army and navy. He spoke of himself as a "war lord," and the tone of the addresses was DISTINCTLY WARLIKE. The post-mortem examination of the dead Emperor's body

showed, beyond doubt, that his MALADY WAS CANCER. The funeral took place on June 18. On that day William issued an address to his people, of a much milder tone than the addresses to the army and navy.—Count Zeidlitz Trutzscher succeeded Herr von Puttkamer as Minister of the Interior.—The CORONATION OF WILLIAM was arranged to take place on October 18, the birthday of Emperor Frederick and the anniversary of the coronation of William I.—Bismarck, speaking in the Bundesrath, June 22, said that the Emperor would ADHERE TO THE INTERNAL AND FOREIGN POLICY OF HIS PREDECESSORS.—The Reichstag was opened with unusual ceremony on the 25th. Emperor William made an address, in which he dwelt on the pacific disposition of Germany. He promised to follow the path of his grandfather, and said that in foreign politics he was resolved to MAINTAIN PEACE WITH EVERY ONE, so far as lay in his power.—A report of the German physicians who attended Emperor Frederick was made public on July 10. They criticised Sir Morell Mackenzie's management of the case.—In the latter part of July, Emperor William visited St. Petersburg, Stockholm, and Copenhagen.—At Frankfort-on-the-Oder, August 16, the Emperor made a speech which attracted much attention. He said: "Our 46,000,000 of people ought rather to be left on the battle-field than to permit one stone of what has been gained to be taken."—On September 17 it was reported that Prince Bismarck had asked the Emperor's permission to resign.—A SENSATION WAS CAUSED by the publication, on September 20, of extracts from the DIARY OF EMPEROR FREDERICK, showing that the idea of establishing the German Empire originated with him, and that Bismarck and Emperor William reluctantly accepted it. It was also shown that Frederick, whenever he ascended the throne, was determined to INTRODUCE A THOROUGHLY LIBERAL RÉGIME, and make the Ministry responsible to Parliament, in the English fashion. Prince Bismarck at once expressed doubts as to the authenticity of the published extracts, and obtained the Emperor's consent to PROSECUTE THE PUBLISHERS of the *Deutsche Rundschau*, in which the diary appeared. The publishers gave the name of Professor Geffcken of Hamburg as the person through whom the diary was obtained. Geffcken was arrested, on September 29, on the charge of REVEALING STATE SECRETS. He claimed that Emperor Frederick had AUTHORIZED THE PUBLICATION of the diary three months after his death.—It was made known, on April 25, that Count Herbert Bismarck had been appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs.—In the latter part of April, Prince Bismarck declined the title of Duke, on the ground that he was not in a position to support the dignity.—On May 23 there was published an Imperial decree providing that ALL TRAVELLERS ENTERING ALSACE-LORRAINE from France must present passports viséd by the German Ambassador at Paris. This regulation was enforced with vigor for only a short time. There was a little talk of reprisals on the part of France, but a proposition to that effect was defeated in the Chamber of Deputies by an enormous majority.—In May, twenty-nine Social Democrats of Berlin were sentenced to imprisonment, for terms varying from two to six months, for circulating seditious prints.—It was officially announced at Strasburg, July 16, that, after January 1, 1889, all private documents written in the French language, bearing no date or a date later than July 1, 1872, must be accompanied by an authorized German translation.—GENERAL VON MOLTKE was placed on the RETIRED LIST OF THE ARMY, August 13, and GENERAL VON WALDERSEE succeeded him. The Emperor consented to Count von Moltke's resignation only in response to the latter's repeated requests.—M. de Giers and Count Herbert Bismarck, representing Russia and Germany, agreed, in August, to appoint a joint commission to consider measures to improve economic relations between the two countries.—The appointment of Herr von Bennigsen, the leader of the National-Liberal party, to be Governor of Hanover, was announced on August 29.

RUSSIA.—According to the terms of a new decree, issued early in April, imposing extra stamp-duties on native and foreign securities, the duty on bonds and mortgage bonds must be paid by those issuing them, while the duty on shares and dividend-warrants must be paid by the holders thereof.—It was announced, on April 13, that the GOVERNMENT'S PROGRAMME OF CIVIL-SERVICE EXAMINATIONS for 1889 was extensive, and, if strictly applied, would much reduce the power and influence of the bureaucracy.—The Tsar's assent to the REVIVAL OF THE SLAV ASSOCIATIONS, closed ten years ago, under an edict of the late Tsar, was obtained in May.—The Russian military chiefs assembled in St. Petersburg about May 1. They declared that Russia would not be in a position for a long time to attack a European Power. Even Russia's DEFENSIVE FORCES were, in their opinion, TOO WEAK, owing to a lack of railways. It was decided to construct three lines toward the Austrian frontier, at a cost of 13,000,000 rubles.—At a military parade, in May, a lieutenant made an attempt to shoot the Tsar. The lieutenant appeared to be insane.—An important event was the opening, toward the end of May, of the TRANS-CASPIAN RAILWAY to Samarcand, bringing the boundary of the Chinese Empire within twelve days' travel from London. At Samarcand the opening of the road was greeted by a great crowd of Russians and natives, and the enterprise was regarded as a fresh evidence of the Tsar's solicitude for the welfare of his people in

Central Asia. A few days later it was said that a plan was in contemplation to have the Tsar crowned EMPEROR OF CENTRAL ASIA, at Samarcand, as an offset to the influence of Queen Victoria's title of Empress of India.—The route of the SIBERIAN RAILWAY was fixed a little earlier. The Pacific terminus will be at Vladivostock, and the road will connect Narjinsk, Chita, Irkutsk, Tomsk, Tobolsk, and Ekaterinburg.—Russian intrigues were renewed in Corea, in May, with the object of inducing the King to sever the connection between Corea and China.—The statement was made, on June 18, that no foreign officers would be allowed to WITNESS RUSSIAN MILITARY MANŒUVRES this year, and that Russian officers had been forbidden to attend similar manœuvres abroad.—On June 19 it was semi-officially stated that the Tsar had declined to sanction the proposal of General Vannovski, the Minister of War, that the number of reserve battalions be doubled, on the ground that the political situation in no way justified such a burden.—The nine-hundredth anniversary of the introduction of Christianity into Russia was celebrated at Kieff on July 26.—The discovery of ANOTHER NIHILIST PLOT was made known on August 29. The police captured twelve men and three women, besides a number of bombs. Other arrests followed.—The Tsar and Tsarina set out, September 5, on a two-months' tour of southern Russia. They were received with much favor.

ITALY.—Hostilities between the Italian army in Massowah and the forces under King John of Abyssinia suddenly came to an end early in April. King John's troops retreated to the mountains.—The Italian Cabinet decided to STOP MILITARY OPERATIONS IN AFRICA during the summer, and most of the troops returned to Europe. General Baldissera succeeded General San Marzano in command at Massowah. On April 26 it was announced that King John had reopened negotiations for the conclusion of peace. Late in July, the Italian Government sent a note to all the European Powers, informing them that Italy had definitively TAKEN POSSESSION OF MASSOWAH and the adjacent territory. On August 3 it was made known that Italy had established a protectorate over the island of Zulla, near Massowah. FRANCE PROTESTED AGAINST THE ACTION OF ITALY in these matters, and for a time things wore a stormy look. The Porte, Russia, and Egypt joined in the protest, but nothing has come of it.—After a debate lasting several days, the Chamber of Deputies, on May 2, rejected the bill for the readjustment of local taxes. On May 15 Signor Magliani, the Minister of Finance, said that, after this action, he COULD NOT REMAIN IN OFFICE without an explicit vote in his favor. Prime-Minister Crispi said that the Cabinet supported Signor Magliani. A vote of confidence was adopted—210 to 29.—In the Chamber, on May 30, a motion that the Government should FORTIFY THE MARITIME TOWNS OF ITALY was accepted by the Government as a recommendation, and as such was approved.—On June 8 the Chamber agreed to ABOLISH CAPITAL PUNISHMENT.—Important action was taken on July 19, just before the Chamber was prorogued till November. By a vote of 269 to 97, THE COMMUNAL-REFORM BILL, which gives to 2,000,000 citizens the right to vote in local elections, was adopted.—The news came from Massowah, August 13, that 350 auxiliary troops, under Italian officers, had been massacred by Abyssinians.—There was some talk in July about the POSSIBILITY OF THE POPE LEAVING ROME. It was subsequently declared that he would not do so. In May he issued an ENCYCLICAL DEALING WITH THE SLAVERY QUESTION. He urged the abandonment of the practice in Africa, and praised Dom Pedro for abolishing slavery in Brazil.

AUSTRO-HUNGARY.—It was announced, late in May, that the Government had abandoned its intention to renew the anti-Anarchist law, and would thereafter OPPOSE THE ANARCHISTS by administrative process.—The budget was submitted to the Delegations June 9. After the receipts were deducted from the expenditures, there remained 113,035,634 florins to be provided. Of this, 97,717,155 florins were on account of the army, and 9,180,947 on account of the navy. The total extra expenditures amounted to 23,000,000 florins. A preamble to the budget stated that an increase in Austria's defences was the SUREST SAFEGUARD OF PEACE.—The Emperor, in receiving the Delegations, said that he was satisfied with the amicable relations existing between Austria and the other Powers. He declared that he EARNESTLY DESIRED PEACE.—On June 23 the Austrian Delegation adopted the budget without debate. This was equivalent to a vote of confidence in Count Kálnoky.—The Delegations, on June 27, adopted an army credit of 47,000,000 florins.

SPAIN.—The Cortes decided, early in April, on a scheme of ARMY REORGANIZATION. Conscription was abolished, and service in the ranks was made obligatory. The peace force was fixed at 100,000 men.—Señor Puigcerver, Minister of Finance, on April 3, presented the budget for 1889. The revenue receipts were estimated by him at $170,000,000, and the total expenditures at $169,000,000.—In the Chamber of Deputies, April 19, Señor Balaguer, Minister of the Colonies, confirmed the report that four provinces in Cuba had been declared in a state of siege, in order to repress brigandage.—The great exhibition at Barcelona was opened by the Queen on May 20.—On May 27 was published the text of an agreement

between Spain and the United States, prolonging the existing commercial arrangement pending the conclusion of a more ample treaty.—The CABINET RESIGNED, June 11, after accepting the resignation of General Martinez Campos, Governor General of the Province of New Castile, tendered some time before. Señor Sagasta, Prime Minister of the retiring Cabinet, formed a new Cabinet, as follows: Premier, Señor SAGASTA; Minister of Foreign Affairs, Señor ARMIJO; Minister of Finance, Señor PUIGCERVER; Minister of the Interior, Señor MORET; Minister of Justice, Señor MARTINEZ; Minister of Commerce, Señor CANALEJAS; Minister of War, General O'RYAN; Minister of Marine, Señor RODRIGUEZ; Minister of the Colonies, Señor RUIZ CAPDEPON.—On June 15 Señor Sagasta declared, in the Cortes, that the new Government would CONTINUE THE POLICY OF ITS PREDECESSOR.

OTHER EUROPEAN STATES.—At the end of March, the DANISH MINISTRY WAS OVERTHROWN, on a financial bill, and the session of Rigsdag was closed.—The members of the NEW CABINET IN HOLLAND were announced on April 18, as follows: Mackay, Minister of the Interior; Beerenbrock, Justice; Beaufort, Finance; Hartsen, Foreign Affairs; Neuchenius, Colonies; Bergensius, War; Schimmelpenninck, Marine; Havelaar, Commerce. The Dutch Parliament opened May 1, when the Prime Minister announced that a Royal Commission would be appointed to consider the questions of national defence. Another session of Parliament began on September 18. The speech from the throne declared that the foreign relations of the country were friendly, that the finances were satisfactory, and that no increase in taxation would be necessary.—The SERVIAN Ministry resigned in the last part of April, and a new Ministry was formed, with M. Christics as Prime Minister and Minister of the Interior. This Ministry resigned in September.—The elections in BELGIUM, in June, gave the Clericals a majority of 60 in the Chamber of Deputies, and of 37 in the Senate.—At a conference in Copenhagen, in July, a resolution was passed urging the establishment of a customs-union between Denmark, Norway, and Sweden.—Djelaleddin Pacha, TURKISH Minister of Finance, was dismissed, about August 10, and Agob Pacha Kasasian was appointed Minister of the Interior. On August 15 it was reported that a crisis existed between the Sultan and his Ministers. The trouble was due to the Sultan's refusal to sanction the proposal to borrow £1,500,000 from the Turkish banks. Soon afterward Mahmoud Pacha, ex-Minister of Finance, was accused of embezzling £15,000.

THE PANAMA CANAL.—Early in April, while the proposal for a lottery loan was pending in France, great activity in the work on the line of the Panama Canal was reported. The committee of the French Chamber of Deputies, which considered the loan proposal, recommended on April 25, that PERMISSION FOR THE LOAN BE GRANTED, and, on the 28th, the bill passed by a vote of 312 to 132. The Senate took like action on June 5. The amount of the loan was to be 350,000,000 f.—At a banquet, on June 19, Count de Lesseps declared that the CANAL WOULD BE FINISHED IN TWO YEARS. —A meeting of the shareholders of the Canal Company was held August 1, and again De Lesseps promised that the canal would be opened in 1890.—On September 5, he read a paper before the British Association, at Bath, in which he said he was confident that ten locks of the canal would be completed by 1890.—The proposed loan has not yet been successful, and advices from Panama are to the effect that EXTRAVAGANCE AND MISMANAGEMENT CHARACTERIZE THE WORK. The indications that the canal will be opened by the time named are very shadowy.

THE NICARAGUA CANAL.—The work of making surveys for the proposed Nicaragua Canal has been completed under the direction of Lieutenant R. S. Peary. Some IMPORTANT CHANGES have been suggested. By damming the Rio Grande and forming a lake, the length of canal navigation can be lessened five-and-one-quarter miles. By other modifications in the route, the canal navigation is cut down from forty miles to twenty-nine miles. The cost of the work will thus be reduced to $50,000,000 or $55,000,000.—The contract negotiated between a special envoy of Costa Rica and the President of the Nicaragua Canal Association of New York, having received the approval of the Executive and State departments of Costa Rica, and having been accepted in behalf of the Canal Association, was, on August 9, ratified by the Congress of Costa Rica and signed by its President. This was an IMPORTANT STEP in the progress of the canal enterprise. The concession granted by Costa Rica is similar to the Nicaragua concession.

MEXICO.—The message of President Diaz, at the opening of the April session of the Mexican Congress, contained announcements of the great success of the parcels-post system, instituted in the previous July, and the statement that a convention had been signed by the United States and Mexico for the submission to their respective Congresses of a project to admit, mutually, natural products free of duty.—Elections to choose electors, who in turn were to select a President and members of Congress, were held on June 25. There was NO OPPOSITION worth mentioning to General Diaz and the tickets of the Administration party. The electoral colleges met on July 8, when PRESIDENT DIAZ WAS REËLECTED, with but two dissenting votes. The Government car-

ried the elections everywhere, except in one district.

AFRICA.—At the time this RECORD closes, THE FATE OF HENRY M. STANLEY is still in doubt; but there seems to be the gravest of reasons for the fear that he is no longer living. The opinions of African experts, however, differ as to the chances of his still being alive. On May 28 news came, by a roundabout way, that, on October 25, 1887, Stanley and all his party were well and had plenty of food. On June 14 advices from the Congo, by way of Lisbon, said that STANLEY HAD BEEN WOUNDED in a fight with natives, and that half of his escort had deserted. A despatch from St. Paul de Loanda, June 20, stated that deserters from Stanley's expedition had arrived at Camp Yambunga. They reported that the progress of the expedition had been marked by continuous fighting, and that Stanley had been severely wounded by an arrow. It was estimated that the caravan had lost one-third of its men, and that many of those remaining were ill. Toward the end of June, the report was spread abroad that a "WHITE PACHA" had made his appearance in the Soudanese province of Bahr-el-Ghazel. It was at once conjectured that this man was Stanley, although the possibility that he was Emin Bey was admitted. As Emin was generally known throughout that region, the likelihood that he was Stanley was strengthened. A RELIEF EXPEDITION under Major Barttelot set out in search of Stanley, early in June. A little later news came that Emin was in a situation of great difficulty. Provisions were scarce, and his troops were growing discouraged. On April 4 he received a summons from the Mahdi to surrender and disband his troops. He was much embarrassed by the non-arrival of Stanley. The STARTLING NEWS was received from the Congo, on September 14, that MAJOR BARTTELOT HAD BEEN MURDERED by his carriers, on July 19, and that Professor Jamieson, who accompanied him, had returned to Stanley Falls, and was organizing a new expedition. A week later advices were received that PROFESSOR JAMIESON HAD DIED of African fever, on August 17, and that the organization of another relief expedition was regarded as hopeless. Captain Van Gele, who returned from the Congo country about the middle of September, expressed the opinion that he himself was the man spoken of as the "White Pacha." He avowed a belief in Stanley's safety. It was announced, on September 24, that the King of the Belgians was about to organize a strong expedition to prosecute the SEARCH FOR STANLEY.—On April 10 it was announced that a new English loan, amounting to $10,000,000, had been made by the EGYPTIAN Government. A despatch from Cairo, June 8, said that the Khedive had dismissed Nubar Pacha, President of the Council, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Minister of Justice, and had summoned Riaz Pacha to form a new Cabinet. The new Ministry was constituted as follows: Riaz Pacha, President of the Council, Minister of the Interior, and Minister of Finance; Fazri Pacha, Minister of Justice; Fehmi Pacha, Minister of Foreign Affairs; Omar Lufti Pacha, Minister of War; Zeci Bey, Minister of Public Works; Ali Moubarek Pacha, Minister of Education.—The dispute between the Sultan of MOROCCO and the United States, concerning the imprisonment at Rabat of persons under the protection of the American Consul, was adjusted in May, our Government gaining all the points it had contended for. In August, Prince Muley, a cousin of the Sultan, with an escort of 200 cavalrymen, was ambushed by rebels and slain. As a means of revenge, the Sultan sent his troops against the insurgents, with full license to butcher, ravage, and burn. It was reported that the most horrible outrages were perpetrated.—In August, Judge Reitz was nominated as President of the ORANGE FREE STATE, to succeed the late Sir John Brand.—M. Janssen was appointed Governor of the CONGO STATE, about October 1, to succeed General Strauch, resigned.

ASIA.—Advices from CHINA, in April, stated that the Chinese Premier had peremptorily demanded that the King of Corea explain why the Corean Minister to the United States presented letters to President Cleveland without the intervention of the Chinese Minister. This, it was claimed, was a breach of the explicit conditions on which China permitted Corea to send envoys abroad. In accordance with an imperial decree, the Empress Dowager of China will retire from the Government next March, when the Emperor will assume the sole responsibility.—On May 1 it was reported that Count Hiroburni, the JAPANESE Prime Minister, had resigned; he was succeeded by Count Kurado, the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce.—There was an outbreak of opposition to the Government in COREA, in the latter part of June. It was attributed to Russian instigation. Nine Government officials were beheaded, in the streets of Seoul, by the populace.—The Government of BRITISH INDIA adopted a resolution, about midsummer, in reference to the extension of State education. It was designed to replace private schools by Government institutions, and to engage British specialists to supervise and enlarge technical education.—THE FIRST LINE OF RAILWAY IN PERSIA was opened June 20. It is ten miles long.—A revolt against the Ameer of AFGHANISTAN, headed by Ishak Khan, broke out in August. It was not successful. The Ameer's authority has been formally established in Turkestan.

SOUTH AMERICA.—The struggle for the ABOLITION OF SLAVERY IN BRAZIL was brought to a successful end, on May 13, by the enactment of a law decreeing immediate

and unconditional emancipation. The Emperor of Brazil, who was seriously ill in Italy in May, returned home on August 23.—The boundary dispute between VENEZUELA and Great Britain has not been settled. The Venezuelan Minister of Foreign Affairs, on March 14, issued an official circular declaring that the Government would defend its rights and territory with all the resources of the nation.—Dr. Aniceto Arce has been chosen President of BOLIVIA.—An extradition treaty between the United States and COLOMBIA received the sanction of the National Legislative Council of Colombia on May 25.

HAYTI.—There was a revolution in Hayti in August. General Louis Salomon, who was elected President in 1879, and re-elected in 1886, had become unpopular, and contemplated resigning. Early in July, some of the public buildings in Port-au-Prince were burned (it is supposed) by opponents of the Administration, and a little later there was a popular uprising, which led to the resignation of Salomon on August 10. He left Hayti and proceeded to France. A provisional government was formed, consisting of Messrs. Boisrond Canal, Seide Télémaque, D. Légitime, E. Claude, Hyppolite N. St. Arnand, and C. Archin. A decree was issued dissolving the Chambers, and calling on the people to elect a constituent assembly, to meet on October 10, to revise or amend the constitution, and elect a President. Salomon claimed that he left the government in a sound financial condition. On September 28 there was a battle between the forces of Télémaque and Légitime, and Télémaque was killed.

HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.—The Legislative Assembly of the Hawaiian Islands, on July 24, by a vote of 35 to 10, passed a military bill over the King's veto. By this bill the naval establishment was abolished, and the ARMY REDUCED TO SIXTY-FIVE MEN. Information received in San Francisco, on September 16, was to the effect that the Hawaiian Government was insolvent, and that nothing could prevent bankruptcy in the near future. It was stated that the Finance Minister had withdrawn private deposits from the post-office savings-bank. The public debt was set down at $2,750,000, for which the only security is the Crown lands and Government buildings at Honolulu, which, under a forced sale, would not realize half that amount. Another revolution was not regarded as at all improbable.

[*This* RECORD *covers the period from April 1 to October 1.*]

SCIENCE.

ASTRONOMY.—A measurement of the PERIOD OF THE SUN'S ROTATION has been made by Mr. Henry Crew of Johns Hopkins University, by a comparison of the wave-lengths of certain lines in the spectrum, when measured in light coming from the two opposite limbs of the sun. By Doppler's principle, the wave-length of the line in the light from the approaching limb ought to be shorter than that in the light from the receding limb. The results obtained give a velocity of the photosphere, at the sun's equator, of 2,437 miles per second. From this, the rotation period is determined to be 25.88 days. Mr. Crew's observations indicate an increase in the angular velocity of the surface with higher heliographical latitudes. This result is opposed to those obtained by Carrington and Spoerer from observations on sun-spots. Dr. J. Wilsing has, more recently, attempted to determine the rotation period by observations on faculæ. The period thus determined is 25.23 days. The faculæ show no variations in velocity with latitude. The difficulty of identifying faculæ on their reappearance, and of measuring their positions with exactness, makes these conclusions somewhat doubtful.

L. Struve has made a new calculation of the constant of precession and an estimate of the MOTION IN SPACE OF THE SOLAR SYSTEM. The work was based upon a comparison of the star places given by Bradley for the epoch 1755 with the places of the same stars given in a recent catalogue made at the Pulkova Observatory for the epoch 1855, one-hundred years later. The number of stars included in the discussion is 2,509, divided, for convenience in calculation, into 120 groups. The value obtained for the constant of precession is 50″.3514, a value slightly less than the one generally adopted. In the discussion of the motion of the solar system, a certain mean parallax, and, therefore, a mean distance, is assumed for the average sixth-magnitude star, and the movement of the sun is stated as if seen from such a star. According to Struve, the displacement of the sun, as seen from such a star, would amount, in one-hundred years, to 4″.3642. The actual velocity corresponding to this is about thirteen miles per second. The point in the sky toward which the sun is moving is in the constellation Hercules. Struve does not accept his own results without reserve, but, by combining them with those of other astronomers, arrives at a set of values for the velocity and direction of motion of the solar system, which he considers more probably true than his own. The displacement is, in this set of values, about 5″, corresponding to a velocity of fifteen miles per second. The point toward which the system is moving is still in Hercules, but differs from Struve's result by seven degrees in Right Ascension.

Mr. Norman Lockyer, in the Bakerian lecture before the Roya' Society, expounded and extended his views on the ORIGIN AND CONSTITUTION OF THE HEAVENLY BODIES, which were presented in the last SCIENCE

RECORD. Proceeding on the theory that all luminous heavenly bodies, comets, nebulæ, and stars, are formed of meteoric matter more or less densely aggregated, and that the heat and consequent luminosity of the assemblage are due to the collisions of the individual meteorites composing the swarm, or to the passage of one swarm through another, Mr. Lockyer has developed explanations of the various forms of nebulæ, and of the colors and spectra of the different characteristic groups of stars. He proposes a classification of the heavenly bodies based upon their temperature, as determined by the peculiarities of their spectra. The first group includes those bodies, such as comets, nebulæ, and some stars, for which the bright-lined spectrum shows radiation without absorption. These bodies are meteoric swarms in which the process of condensation is beginning, and the temperature is not yet high. In the succeeding groups, up to and including the fourth, the spectra are marked by increasd absorption of the elements, especially of hydrogen, and, after a certain point in the rise of temperature has been reached, by a decrease in the absorption of the metallic elements, while the hydrogen absorption continues to increase. The stars showing the greatest absorption of hydrogen, and the greatest simplicity of the rest of the spectrum, are at the highest temperature. As the temperature falls, after the system of meteorites is so condensed that further condensation cannot go on to such an extent as to maintain the temperature at the highest point, the metallic absorption again appears in the spectrum, and in the sixth group the absorption of carbon becomes predominant. The seventh group includes the non-luminous bodies.

Professor H. A. Newton published, in the *American Journal of Science* for July, 1888, a discussion of the data which he has collected concerning the DIRECTION OF MOTION OF METEORS. He confines the discussion entirely to those meteors which have reached the ground in solid form, and which have been seen to fall. He decides that the motion of almost all of these was direct—that is, in general, in the direction of the earth's motion—and that the reason for this fact is, not that those moving in the opposite direction, or retrograde, were not observed, but either that those moving retrograde were dissipated in the atmosphere and never reached the ground, or that the general movement of meteors in the solar system is direct. The conclusion is also drawn that these meteors do not pass very near the sun, and that their orbits are similar to those of the comets of short period.

At Cape Town, Sawerthal discovered, on February 18, a comet, which, at the time of discovery, was visible to the naked eye. The orbit has since been shown to be elliptic, with a period of about two thousand years. It passed through a short period of unusual brightness, the increase being estimated at from two to three magnitudes.

Encke's comet and Faye's comet have been again observed, the former occupying very nearly the position predicted for it from Doctor Backlund's ephemeris.

A new comet was discovered by Mr. Brooks, at Geneva, New York, on August 7, and another was discovered by Mr. Barnard of the Lick Observatory, on September 3.

At Vienna, Palisa discovered, on March 8, minor planet 273 ; on April 3, minor planet 274 ; on April 13, minor planet 275 ; on April 17, minor planet 276, and on May 16, minor planet 278.

At Nice, M. Charlois discovered, on May 3, minor planet 277.

PHYSICS.—Professor Kundt published, in the *Annalen der Physik und Chemie*, No. 7, an account of his experiments to determine the INDEX OF REFRACTION IN METALS. From the experience which he had gained in his work on the electro-magnetic rotation of polarized light in metal films, he was led to believe in the possibility of constructing metallic prisms of very small angle so that they would be transparent and fitted for the direct measurement of the index of refraction. After a most laborious series of trials, he was able to deposit on platinized glass, thin prismatic films of silver, gold, copper, and other metals. The faces of the films were rarely plane, and, out of more than two thousand made, only twenty-eight were available in the researches. The deviation of the light was, in every case, so slight that it was measured directly by a micrometer in the observing telescope. From the observations, the quantity corresponding to the index of refraction in transparent bodies was calculated. In three of the metals used, silver, gold, and copper, this quantity was less than unity. In platinum, iron, nickel, and bismuth, it was considerably greater than unity. This result points to a velocity of light in the first set of metals greater than that in air. Kundt was able to measure, also, the dispersion of these metals. In the first set of metals it was normal, and in the second set distinctly abnormal, the red being refracted more than the blue. The results were checked by the determination of the deviation produced by the same prisms, when immersed in liquids ; the results were found to agree with the values which were predicted on the hypothesis that the quantities determined for the metals were true indices of refraction. A comparison of the relative velocities of light in these different metals with their relative electrical and thermal conductivities shows a most striking agreement.

H. Hertz has published, in the *Annalen der Physik und Chemie*, Nos. 7 and 8*a*, an account of a research in which he offers evidence that ELECTRO-DYNAMIC INDUCTION IS

PROPAGATED THROUGH SPACE with a velocity of the same order of magnitude as that of light. The first method of investigation depended upon the interference of two sets of electro-dynamic waves, set up by the primary conductor, one through the air, and the other through a wire. The existence of these waves was observed by means of a secondary circuit, constructed of such dimensions that the period of the electrical oscillations in it was commensurable with the period of the oscillations in the primary circuit. In other words, Hertz made use of the principle of resonance, in accordance with which one tuning-fork, when sounding, will set in vibration a neighboring fork of the same pitch. With this apparatus, Hertz found that for certain positions of the secondary circuit bright sparks could be observed in it, when the primary circuit was in operation, but that in other positions of the secondary circuit these sparks were no longer visible. He argues from this that there is an interference of the two sets of waves coming from the wire and from the primary circuit, and that, therefore, the electro-dynamic action is propagated with a finite velocity. This velocity is not the same in air as in the wire, but is greater in air.

In his second method of investigation, Hertz observed the interferences between electro-dynamic waves propagated directly from the primary conductor, and waves from the same source reflected at a plane conducting surface. The alternate coincidences and interferences of the two sets of waves for different positions of the secondary observing-circuit were very marked. The wave-length of the electro-dynamic wave, with a period of about 1.4 hundred millionth of a second, was found to be about 4.8 metres. The velocity of propagation is calculated to be about 320,000 kilometres per second. The agreement of this velocity, determined from quantities which cannot be accurately measured, with the velocity of light, is so close as to afford strong support to the view that the electro-dynamic oscillations are propagated in the same medium as that which serves to transmit the waves of light, and is thus an important confirmation of Maxwell's electro-magnetic theory of light.

At the meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, Mr. Keep of Detroit read a paper on the influence of ALUMINIUM IN CAST IRON. The experiments upon which his conclusions were based consisted in the comparison of the physical qualities of iron bars, one of which was left unchanged in its composition during the successive castings, while to the other were added small quantities of aluminium. The iron alone gave castings full of blow-holes and very weak, while the addition of but one-tenth of 1 per cent. of aluminium gave a casting free from holes, and with a tensile strength 44 per cent. greater than that of an exceptionally solid casting of the pure iron. The aluminium seems so to affect the iron during the process of cooling that it retains, in the combined form, almost all of its carbon until the instant of crystallization, when much of the carbon is liberated throughout the mass, in the so-called graphitic form, making what is known as gray iron. The presence of this graphitic carbon, thus instantaneously liberated and uniformly distributed, explains the facts that the iron containing the aluminium has no tendency to chill, forms no sand-scale on the surface, and is soft and easily worked with the tool. The homogeneity and closeness of grain, resulting in the casting from the presence of the aluminium, explain its superiority in strength and elasticity, and the smallness of its permanent set over the pure iron, or over iron treated with silicon.

Prof. Victor Meyer has lately reëxamined and established RAOULT'S LAW, and has used it in the determination of molecular weights of non-volatile substances. According to Raoult, the temperature of solidification of a solvent is lowered by the solution in it of other substances. The amount by which the temperature of solidification is lowered is proportional to the quantity of the substance thus dissolved, and is inversely proportional to the molecular weight of the substance. A constant which enters for each solvent used, may be readily determined by the solution in it of substances of known molecular weights. Meyer has applied this law with great success in determining the molecular weight of the members of two isomeric series of derivatives of benzil.

CHEMISTRY.—MM. Berthelot and Fabre announce, in the *Annales de Chimie et de Physique* for May, the discovery of three ALLOTROPIC FORMS OF TELLURIUM. One of these forms is crystalline ; the others appear as amorphous, dark-colored powders, obtained by precipitation. These last can only be kept from oxidation by working in an atmosphere of nitrogen. All three varieties can be dissolved in a mixture of bromine and bromine water. In the process of solution, the number of heat-units evolved differs for one of the amorphous varieties from that for the two other varieties. All three forms have the same specific heat.

Doctor Gattermann has prepared pure TRICHLORIDE OF NITROGEN (well known as a terrific explosive) by treating with chlorine the impure oil obtained by the action of chlorine upon ammonium chloride, after careful washing and drying. Analysis showed the oil thus obtained to contain almost exactly the theoretical quantity of chlorine. Doctor Gattermann discovered that the compound is dissociated by sunlight, or the light from burning magnesium wire, and that dissociation can be brought about by a rise of temperature to 95° C. The unex-

pected explosions of this compound are thus explained.

Doctor Biltz, under the direction of Prof. Victor Meyer, has investigated the VAPOR DENSITY OF SULPHUR, with the view of deciding whether the molecule of sulphur should be considered hexatomic. He finds that, while at low temperatures the experiments indicate a density which will admit of that conclusion, yet, as the temperature increases, the density diminishes, until the temperature reaches a limit at which the density indicates a diatomic molecule. Above this temperature no change in the constitution of the molecule is to be observed. The conclusion is that the true molecule of sulphur, when completely vaporized, is diatomic.

Doctor Kossel of Berlin announced to the Physiological Society, on June 8, the discovery of a NEW BASE IN TEA. He was led to undertake the search for this base by the physiological action of tea, which is not accounted for by the presence of caffeine. The new base is called theophylline. It is isomeric with theobromine, a base found in cocoa, but differs from it in its crystalline form, and in containing water of crystallization. The melting-points of the two isomers are also different. By treating theophylline so as to introduce a methyl group into its molecule, the product caffeine was obtained.

Doctor McCay of Princeton published, in *Fresenius's Zeitschrift für Analytische Chemie*, No. 5, 1888, an account of a NEW ACID, the existence of which explains the peculiar action of sulphuretted hydrogen upon arsenic acid. The acid is obtained by bringing into an acid solution of arseniate of potassium a quantity of sulphuretted hydrogen, much less than is needed to give a precipitate of pentasulphide, or trisulphide of arsenic. A bottle filled with the solution is kept for twelve hours in a dark, cool place, at the end of which time the solution is strongly acid and free from sulphuretted hydrogen. The product of the reaction is the new sulphoxyarsenic acid. Other ways of preparing it are given, and some of its reactions described.

Doctor Krüss, in connection with Doctor Kiesewetter, has continued the investigation of the rare Norwegian minerals begun by him with Doctor Nilson, with a view of isolating some one of the many elements which he believes to exist in them. Instead of attempting to separate the constituents of the minerals by direct analysis,—a process rendered almost impossible from the great similarity of their properties,—a large number of specimens were examined in order to find one in which only a few constituents were present. A mineral, yttrotitanite of Arendal, was found, in which indications of only two constituents in considerable quantities were apparent. The absorption-bands of these constituents are those of one of the constituents of didymium and one of the constituents of holmium. The view which has recently been advanced, that these two so-called elements are really compounds, is thus strongly confirmed.

Professor Seubert has determined the ATOMIC WEIGHT OF OSMIUM, which has been usually given as 198.6. This value placed osmium in a position not consistent with the periodic law of classification. The value, determined by Seubert's experiments, is 191.1, a value which is consistent with the periodic law.

A NEW GAS has been prepared by Professor Thorpe and Mr. Rodger, called by them thiophosphoryl fluoride. It is colorless and transparent, inflammable on contact with the air, and is dissociated by continued heating. It was reduced to a liquid by pressure.

MISCELLANEOUS.—The British Association for the advancement of Science met in Bath, September 5. The president of the meeting was Sir Frederick Bramwell, who delivered his inaugural address on the relations between pure science and its application in engineering.

The American Association for the Advancement of Science met in Cleveland, Ohio, August 15. Prof. S. P. Langley, the retiring president, delivered an address on the history of the theory of radiant heat.

The French Association for the Advancement of Science met at Oran, Algeria, in March. The president, M. Laussedat, spoke on the civilizing influence of the sciences.

The International Geological Congress held its fourth meeting, in the week beginning September 17, in London. The International Commissions on Nomenclature met several times during the meeting, but no definite conclusions were reached.

The death of Professor Clausius of Bonn occurred on August 24. Professor Clausius was distinguished as one of the founders of the mechanical theory of heat and of the kinetic theory of gases. He was also a most able teacher of physics.

ART AND ARCHÆOLOGY.

In EGYPT the discovery, at Tell-el-Amarna, of a series of cuneiform tablets belonging to the archives of Amenophis III. and IV., is an event of many-sided interest. They consist, for the greater part, of letters and despatches sent to these Egyptian kings by the kings and governors of Palestine, Syria, Mesopotamia, and Babylon, subject to Egypt in the fifteenth century B. C. They show (1) the strong hold of Egypt over those provinces, and (2) the fact, not before suspected, that the cuneiform writing and language were then in general use along the coast of Western Asia.—Mr. Petrie writes that the site of the Labyrinth has been fixed, beyond reasonable doubt, at the south of the pyramid of Hawara in the Fayûm, and in this he

agrees with Lepsius. In the cemetery close by this pyramid he unearthed about sixty portraits, painted on panel with colored wax—that is, according to the encaustic process—dating from the early Roman period. They were employed to take the place of the modelled gilt masks which covered the features of the mummies during the Ptolemaic period. They are life-like and characteristic portraits, and their artistic value is increased by the fact that hardly a dozen other examples of ancient encaustic work are known to exist.—The excavations of Boubastis, renewed from last year, have brought to light, in the large halls of the temple, innumerable statues and series of reliefs; but the most interesting discovery has been that Boubastis, like Tanis, was an important Hyksos settlement, and several statues and inscriptions of kings of the twelfth and thirteenth dynasties were found.—At Tunis, the new "Alaouï" Museum was inaugurated, May 4, at the Bardo. In the province, the discovery has been made of an entire buried city, whose ruins exceed in interest anything yet found in this part of Africa.—In Asia Minor the sites of a number of important early cities have been identified, some by Mr. Bent, others by members of the French and German schools. Both Professors Kiepert and Ramsay have made extensive trips through parts of Asia Minor during the summer.—At a meeting of the Vienna Academy of Sciences Professor Müller presented a work containing the epigraphic material gathered by J. Euting in Arabia. Of the three classes into which these 950 inscriptions are divided, the second is of great importance, as it proves the existence of a North-Arabian written language 1000 or 1200 years before Mohammed, among a people which called itself *Lihjan*.—The topographical investigations recently made at Jerusalem by Herr Schick are so important that, if his identifications be correct, our guide-books will have to be re-written.—The excavations undertaken in Cyprus by the English have been so far successful that the great temple of Aphrodite at Paphos has been identified and its site laid bare.

In GREECE the archæological world has been set agog by the successful robbery of the most valuable part of the Cabinet of Coins, and by the increase in the smuggling out of antiquities, both genuine and spurious.—The excavations on the Akropolis at Athens have almost been brought to a close, as only a small area remains to be explored. Recently the work has been carried on near the museum. To the earliest and pre-historic period belong the foundations of some Pelasgic houses, part of the Pelasgic city-wall, and some bronze implements and vases of the same age. Of the early archaic period are some remarkable sculptures in porous stone, vividly painted, belonging to a series of reliefs whose subjects are taken from the labors of Herakles, and suggesting that in early times the cult of Herakles may have been important in Attica. Somewhat later in the archaic period were executed a number of remarkable sculptures in marble, found on the same site. Numerous small bronzes of this style also came to light. On some of the vases were names of new artists, like Oreibelos, Sophilos, Kallis, etc., and one general fact of interest was ascertained—that the red-figured style is of considerably earlier origin than had been supposed. In the excavations at the temple of Zeus Olympios, a great deal has been learned in regard to the ground-plan and style of the early temple.—The French school has been making discoveries on various ancient sites on the island of Amorgos, has resumed work at Mantineia, and begun explorations in Crete.—The excavations undertaken by the Greek Ministry at Tanagra have shown that this necropolis is by no means exhausted, as was supposed.—The American school distinguished itself highly by its work at Dionyso in Attica, which was identified with Ikaria, the seat of the Greek drama and the dwelling-place of Dionysos; the shrines of Apollon and Dionysos, together with considerable sculpture of the archaic and classic periods were unearthed.—At Mykenæ fifteen tombs have been opened, of which one was dome-shaped. Mr. Adler has given, at the Archæological Society in Berlin, a reconstruction of the royal palace whose ruins were discovered some months ago.—The early bronzes of the eighth century, shields and pateræ decorated with reliefs, found in the famous cave of Zeus on Mount Ida in Crete, have been published, and prove to be extremely valuable for the history of Phœnician and early-Greek art.—The great accumulation of antiquities throughout Greece has necessitated the foundation of new museums. A second museum has been built on the Akropolis at Athens; the new right wing at the Central Museum has been completed; a third building, an "antiquarium," for minor antiquities, and another building for a collection of casts, are projected. Museums have also been erected at Syra for the antiquities from the islands, and at Tripolitza for Mantineia, Tegea, and the neighborhood.

ITALY.—The most important architectural discovery at Rome has been that of the arch of Augustus, erected by him in memory of the standards recovered from the Parthians. It was an arch with three openings, like those of Severus and Constantine, spanning the road between the temples of Cæsar and Castor. The column of Phocas has been found to be much earlier than 608, the older dedication having merely been erased. A *sacellum compitale*, or open-air chapel, established at the cross-roads to the Lares Compitales, has been unearthed on the Esquiline. It is very early, and rises on a public area which retains its ancient pavement. It is

composed of a large altar of travertine, before which is a wide platform of tufa, covered with slabs of marble by Augustus, c. 10 B. C. A singular discovery was that of a collection of small votive statuettes in bronze of a very early style, a part of which were evidently originals, imported from Greece in the sixth century B. C., while others were imitations by Latin artists. During the last four years, four of the ancient bridges of Rome, the Vatican, Cestian, Æmilian, and Sublician, have been destroyed, and two others, the Valentinian and Fabrician, have been disfigured. One only, the Ælian, finished in 134, remains entire, and this also is to be pulled down or damaged, if the plans for the new embankments are carried out.—The Italian Government has attempted excavations on the site of Sybaris, but the first requisite—the exact site itself—has been missing. On the other hand, a necropolis has been found which belongs, not to a Greek, but to an Italic population of this region before the supremacy of the Greek colonists. This discovery is a confirmation of the belief of those archæologists who maintain that there was an important culture in Italy previous to and contemporary with that of the Etruscans.—Discoveries at Este have thrown new light on the character of the pre-Roman culture of this region of Upper Italy, especially in regard to language and epigraphy, to arts and manufactures.—A French archæologist, René de la Blanchère, has found and studied, in that part of Latium which is around Velletri, the system of drainage of those ancient agricultural tribes subdued by the Romans, of which at least twenty were established in this region. He found a complete system of subterranean galleries, ramifying into each other, draining all the subsoil, in a way to regulate the level of the waters and carry off the overflow, thus remedying the infiltration which has now made of this country a desert.—At Città della Pieve has been found the earliest known carved Etruscan urn.—Work has been recommenced at Ostia in a portion of the city which has not been disturbed during the last four centuries, and whose buildings do not belong to the tedious category of granaries.—In Rome there have been some important finds of Christian antiquities; some very primitive and sumptuous crypts in the catacomb of Priscilla have been opened up, whose pavements and walls were decorated with marbles and mosaics; some sculptured sarcophagi have been added to the Christian museum of the Lateran; two paintings were discovered at Santa Priscilla, and the busts of SS. Peter and Paul, on a metal plate, in the catacomb of Sant' Agnese.

In FRANCE the *Salle Dieulafoy* was opened at the Louvre, containing the antiquities found at Susa. A Gallic cemetery has been excavated near Pontioy. An early Gothic church attached to a convent of Bernardine monks was discovered in Paris, on the Boulevard St. Germain, and another at Luçon.

At Seville, in SPAIN, the Cathedral has been badly ruined by the giving way of some piers, which led to the falling of the roof.

In SWITZERLAND the decision to create a National Museum for the entire country is calling forth a lively competition among Swiss towns. Bâle has offered for a site its Franciscan church, and will contribute its collection of mediæval antiquities. Berne, Lucerne, and Zurich are preparing to make similar offers.

In BELGIUM the Retrospective Exhibition, organized at Brussels by the Ministry, was opened, on June 7, and includes exhibits of every branch of arts and manufactures practised in the country from prehistoric times to the present day. As might be expected, there has never been so fine an exhibit of the mediæval Christian metal-sculpture for which the country was famous.

In AUSTRIA, Vienna has seen the inauguration of a magnificent monument to Maria Theresa, whose architect is Hasenhauer and whose sculptor is Gaspar Zumbusch. The colossal figure of the Empress is seated on an immense platform surrounded by equestrian and standing statues of bronze.—In ITALY there have been several exhibitions in which modern art has had a large share, like those of the Vatican, in honor of Pope Leo XIII., and of Bologna.—In Bologna a monument to Victor Emmanuel, consisting of a colossal equestrian statue by Monte-Verde, was unveiled. In Verona a statue of the famous painter, Paolo Veronese, has been erected, by the sculptor Romeo Cristiani.—In ENGLAND there was opened, early in summer, in London, an Italian Exhibition, which proved to be a good exposition of the arts and art-industries of modern Italy; showing also that Italian painting is gradually emerging from its late imitative stage into a more original life. Of late a young artist, Mr. Harry Bates, has commenced to occupy a rather prominent position among English sculptors.

At the last Paris Salon it was noticed that American artists were prominent both for the excellence and the number of the works they exhibited.

NECROLOGY.—Among the artists and amateurs whose recent death we deplore, are: Paul Adolphe Rajon, the distinguished French etcher, who is so well known in England and America; Frank Holl, the most successful among the young English portrait-painters in the robust style; the Vicomte de Tanzia, keeper of the drawings, paintings, and chalcographical collections of the Louvre; Luigi Mussini, the well-known painter and director of the Academy of Fine Arts at Siena.

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